DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 028 117 SP 002 247

PACE Conference on Innovation. A Report by the President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services, Title III, Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services.

Pub Date 68

Note-158p.

EDRS Price MF-$0.75 HC-$8.00

Descriptors-Administrative Organization, Agency Role, Community Involvement, Conference Reports, *Educational Innovation, *Federal Aid, *Federal State Relationship, *Program Administration, Program Coordination, Program Descriptions, Program Development, Program Evaluation, State Departments of Education, *State Programs

Identifiers-Elementary and Secondary Education Act, ESEA, ESEA Title III, PACE, Projects to Advance Creativity in Education

This document reports a conference, attended by representatives from the 50 states, which attempted to ease the way for the transition of the administrative authority for the PACE program (Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title III, Projects to Advance Creativity in Education) from the direct control of the U.S. Office of Education to the state departments of education. Contents include (1) addresses by Wilbur J. Cohen; Harold Howe II; Ralph K. Huitt; John Brademas; and S. Douglass Cater, Jr.; (2) a statement of conference objectives and a copy of the program; (3) descriptiv e and statistical reports on the status of PACE; (4) panel presentations on the new relationships of national and state advisory councils and on educational change from the local level; (5) presentations on Title III in the cities; (6) summaries of group presentations and discussions on nine aspects of state plan program development; and (7) recommendations for improving Title III programs. (JS)

ED028117

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

pace
PROJECTS TO ADVANCE
CREATIVITY IN EDUCATION

conference on innovation

**Report by the President's
National Advisory
Council on Supplementary
Centers and Services**

SP002247

PACE CONFERENCE ON INNOVATION

September 30 - October 2, 1968
Washington, D.C.

A Report by the
President's National Advisory Council
on Supplementary Centers and Services
Title III, Elementary
and Secondary Education Act

James A. Hazlett
Chairman

Herbert W. Wey
Vice-Chairman

Members:
Helen Bain
Rosita Cota
Pierre DuMaine
Mario D. Fantini
Ruth Mancuso
J. C. Martin, Jr.
A. Louis Read
Maynard C. Reynolds
William J. Sanders
William L. Smith

PACE CONFERENCE ON INNOVATION

Director

Herbert W. Wey

Program Planning Committee

Herbert W. Wey, Chairman
Ralph Becker
Norman E. Hearn
Richard R. Goulet

Editorial Committee

Richard R. Goulet, Editor
Lorel Kelly
Myra Kovey

FOREWORD

The PACE Conference on Innovation served as a vehicle for promoting understanding and support among groups involved in the education of our Nation's children. Specifically, it attempted to ease the way for the transition of the administrative authority for the PACE program from the direct control of the U.S. Office of Education to the State departments of education. However, in a broader sense, the Conference also served to emphasize the transition and change which are slowly occurring throughout American education. And the Conference further accented the hard fact that education is the responsibility of all people, not the sole responsibility of one governmental agency or even of educators.

The need for imaginative contributions to the improvement of education from a variety of sources was recognized nationally with the enactment of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, especially under Title III, which required the involvement of persons broadly representative of other educational and cultural resources in program design and operation.

To further promote this concept of broad involvement as an essential ingredient of relevant innovation in education, the amendments to the ESEA in 1967, required the establishment of State advisory councils which include members representing a broad spectrum of educational and cultural ideas, drawn from industry, business, private foundations, museums, educational associations, government, and, of course, from the educational establishment including classroom teachers.

At the national level, the President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services was established as a completely independent advisory body to to the President and the Congress. The Council's purpose is to review and evaluate on a national scale the impact of Title III in seeking imaginative solutions to educational problems; its mission also involves working closely with all groups concerned with PACE--State educational agencies, State advisory councils, the U.S. Office of Education--in order to promote better working relationships among these groups and to obtain essential feedback from all levels of operation.

The ideas expressed at the PACE Conference on Innovation showed that such a compatible and viable relationship between different groups at different levels can be established. The Council feels that many of its fears concerning the new administration of Title III have been dispelled. A constructive determination to maintain PACE as the hallmark of educational innovation pervaded the Conference and is evidenced throughout this report.

The Council expresses gratitude to the participants from the 50 States and outlying areas, whose desires to promote a creative dialogue among all groups responsible for education made the Conference so highly successful. We hope that the Conference has served as the foundation for continuous, meaningful communication among all groups concerned with Title III. Only through this kind of dynamic interchange of ideas can PACE continue to be a vital force for the improvement of American education.

James Hazlett
Chairman
President's National Advisory Council
on Supplementary Centers and Services

CONTENTS

Page

GREETINGS FROM THE PRESIDENT 1
S. Douglass Cater, Jr., Special Assistant to the President of the United States

CONFERENCE OBJECTIVES. 3
Herbert W. Wey, Vice-Chairman, President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services

EDUCATION: THE DYNAMIC FORCE FOR SOCIAL CHANGE. 5
Wilbur J. Cohen, Secretary, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

INNOVATING FOR NATIONAL PRIORITIES IN AMERICAN EDUCATION 8
Harold Howe, II, U. S. Commissioner of Education

STATUS OF PACE

Introduction. 14
Norman E. Hearn, Chief, Program Analysis and Dissemination Branch, Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, U. S. Office of Education

Statistical Overview. 17
David Iwamoto, Chief, Analysis Section, Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, U. S. Office of Education

National Evaluation Reports 20
Richard I. Miller, Director, Program on Educational Change, University of Kentucky

NATIONAL AND STATE ADVISORY COUNCILS: NEW RELATIONSHIPS

Introduction. 34
Ralph J. Becker, Director, Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, U. S. Office of Education

The National Advisory Council

Congressional Intent 35
Robert M. Mulligan, Assistant to the Director, Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, U. S. Office of Education

Role and Relationships 37
William L. Smith, President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services

The State Advisory Council

Vital Advisory Bodies 39
Terrel H. Bell, Utah Superintendent of Public Instruction

An Emerging Role 41
Arnold Gallegas, Chairman, Washington State Title III Advisory Council

STATE PLAN HIGHLIGHTS

Assessment of Needs and Long-Range Planning 45
O. Ray Warner, Chief, State Plans Branch, Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, U. S. Office of Education

Evaluation and Dissemination 48
Richard R. Goulet, Chief, Program Dissemination Section, Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, U. S. Office of Education

INNOVATION: FACT AND FICTION 52
Louis J. Rubin, Director, Center for Coordinated Education, University of California, Santa Barbara

EDUCATIONAL CHANGE FROM THE LOCAL LEVEL 59
Leon Lessinger, Associate Commissioner for Elementary and Secondary Education, U. S. Office of Education

TITLE III AND THE CITIES 68
Sidney P. Marland, Jr., President, Institute for Educational Development, New York

THE CENTRAL CITIES EFFORT 76
Sam Kavruck, Chief, Demonstration Projects Branch, Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, U. S. Office of Education

STATE PLAN PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

A Strategy for Educational Needs Assessment 80
Russell A. Working, ESEA Title III State Coordinator, Ohio State Department of Education

Long-Range Planning 88
J. Warren Hitt, Deputy Commissioner of Education, Texas Education Agency

State Structure Reorganization 95
Karl Hereford, Director, Program Planning and Evaluation, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, U. S. Office of Education

Evaluation 104
Patrick F. Toole, Assistant Director for Curriculum Development, Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction

State Dissemination Strategies 110
Norman Kurland, Director, Center on Innovation, New York State Education Department

Private School Relations 114
Edward R. D'Alessio, U. S. Catholic Conference, Washington, D. C.

Business, Foundation, and Government Relations 120
Homer Dowdy, Assistant Director, Mott Foundation, Flint, Michigan

Provision for the Handicapped. 124
James Gallagher, Associate Commissioner of Education for the Handicapped, U. S. Office of Education

Community Involvement. 127
Charles Smith, Special Assistant to the Commissioner for Urban Education, U. S. Office of Education

TWO HOUSES DO NOT MAKE A HOME 129
Ralph K. Huitt, Assistant Secretary for Legislation, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

CONGRESSIONAL EXPECTATIONS FOR ESEA TITLE III 135
John Brademas, House Committee on Education and Labor, U. S. House of Representatives

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF TITLE III PROGRAM. 140

APPENDIX I: PROGRAM. 145

GREETINGS FROM THE PRESIDENT*

S. Douglass Cater, Jr.
Special Assistant to the
President of the United States

During the last five years, there has been an amazing breakthrough in Federal aid to education. This breakthrough is partly due to the fact that for once "good ideas have made good politics." The good ideas in the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 made political solutions possible and resulted in the passage of the Act. Title III of that Act represents one of the best of these good ideas, and this is the reason why it has been such a strong and popular program.

Education is now a $50 billion industry in the United States; one of the greatest accomplishments of recent years has been the increase in the proportion of the Gross National Product provided for education. The Federal contribution, alone, to education has increased from 0.1 percent to 1.4 percent of the GNP since the ESEA. However, it will be very hard to maintain this Federal commitment to education in the future, since education is not an "automatic" program. Funds for educational programs do not come from a trust fund, as in the case of the highways program, or from a special tax, as in the case of the Social Security program. Instead, the budget for education is argued each year in Congress. Indeed, each item of that budget, each educational program is examined very closely.

In examining the individual programs every year, Congress asks, "How vital a force is education across America?" Their funding decisions are based on the improvements they see in American education and ultimately in American society as a result of these programs. Therefore, the educator involved in any Federal education program must prove to each Congressman that this program is working for education in his area of the country. Your objective, then, is and must be the improvement of American education in demonstrable ways, and the innovative Title III program is certainly one of the best ways to effect this improvement.

---

* This is a summary statement of Mr. Cater's remarks.

CONFERENCE OBJECTIVES

Herbert W. Wey

Early last spring, when the newly appointed members of the President's National Advisory Council on Title III held their first meeting, the very first conclusion they reached was this: If we are to do our job as described in the Law, we need the assistance and cooperation of the State Advisory committees for Title III, of personnel in the various State departments involved in carrying out the mandates of Title III, and of the staff of the Office of Education. Without the assistance of you people and many others, the job given to the National Advisory Council would be very difficult, if not impossible.

The National Advisory Council has among its assigned tasks, reviewing of State advisory council reports, making an evaluation of Title III projects, and disseminating information concerning exemplary programs. In addition, it must prepare an independent report annually for the President of the United States. State advisory councils have a very similar job at the State level and, as a part of their responsibilities, must submit a report through the State educational agency to the Commissioner of Education and to the National Advisory Council. The State advisory councils also have the responsibility for statewide dissemination of the Title III program.

Therefore, the major overall objective of this conference is to see how we may all work together cooperatively to carry out the intent of Title III and, thus, develop better and more efficient learning programs for boys and girls. In the final analysis, our success will be determined by what happens to boys and girls in our many schools. Personally, I don't think any one group represented here, by itself, can fulfill the intent of Title III. We must coordinate our efforts if we are to do the job. However, coordination of our efforts in no way relieves us from specific responsibilities assigned to us by the law. The law spells out each group's responsibilities and then establishes a framework whereby groups may work together to achieve the intent of Title III. How best we may work together is the major objective of this conference.

In addition to this overall objective which, in itself, justifies this conference, we have set for ourselves several other objectives which, in a way, support and help us in achieving the overall objective.

1. The first of these is to assist all of us in getting a better understanding of ESEA Title III. In connection with this objective we plan to look at what we have and have not accomplished under Title III, and at the changes in the present Law and what this means for the future.

2. Secondly, we hope that we will all leave here with a better understanding of the roles of the National Advisory Council and of the State advisory councils.

3. The third supporting objective deals with the broad fields of evaluation and dissemination which are referred to, again and again, in the law under the responsibilities of the National Advisory Council and

of the State advisory councils. The program has been planned to give us an opportunity to take a look at what is meant by evaluation and dissemination and, also, to give us guides in carrying out these two very important tasks.

4. Fourth, the amended Law gives special attention to provisions for handicapped children. During the conference, we will discuss these.

5. Finally, we want to enlist your assistance in evaluating what has happened under Title III at the national, State and local levels.

We have tried hard to develop a conference program which will help us achieve the objectives which I have just enumerated. We enlist your cooperation and hope that, as a result of this conference, each of us will have a better understanding of our role and an increased competency to carry out this role.

EDUCATION: THE DYNAMIC FORCE FOR SOCIAL CHANGE

Wilbur J. Cohen
Secretary
U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare

As I look ahead to our problems of health, education, and welfare for the decade of the seventies, I see, as perhaps is so true in our national life today, two contradictory though, to some extent, empathic forces working simultaneously.

On the one hand, it appears that we have a considerable body of people in the United States that not only favor the status quo, but that would like to go back to a simpler, much earlier society -- a much more structured, less dynamic, less effervescent, less innovative society. I think that this viewpoint is representative of about 25 percent of the American people.

On the other hand, the forces of technological change, of militancy, of the dynamics of youth in our society, of the mobility of our people, and of the various courses people have taken have indicated that there is another group of people, another 25 percent, in our society that wants more striking innovation, more radical change, and a faster accomplishment of the goals and purposes to which American society has been looking forward for many years.

And then there is the large "in-between" group which comprises about 50 percent of the American population. Its members may have few or no opinions about either of the two opposing points of view.

* * *

During the last three to five years, we have made a great break with the past in Federal support for health, education, and welfare programs.

Medicare, enacted in 1965, was the culmination of some 25 years of the deepest ideological controversy which probably has ever existed in American society, barring only the enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 which culminated, I would estimate, a hundred years of debate on the matter of equal opportunity for minority groups. Also, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 represented the culmination of 95 years of effort since the first generalized type of Federal aid to education was introduced into the United States Congress in 1870. Although there have been other acts, none compare with the basic departure in public policy encompassed by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. These three laws -- Medicare, the Civil Rights Act, and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act -- represent the efforts of two to three generations of people who were great innovators in social policy -- determined people who were able to persuade the United States Congress and the United States citizens that our Nation would not be great and could not carry out its goals and mandates unless these three types of legislation were and would remain the law of the land. Although there is a good deal of ferment and dissatisfaction and frustration, I feel secure that any efforts to repeal these three basic laws will be unsuccessful. There may be changes, but they will be to enhance, deepen, and expand the basic public policy that is embodied in these laws.

In the future, the Federal Government is going to provide a great deal more money, effort, leadership, and direction in these areas, and I see no reason why it cannot do so, if we look ahead to the decade of the seventies and envisage that the gross national product will increase about 50 billion dollars every year to a point where the gross national product will reach 1000 billion dollars a year, instead of the present 850 billion.

I see no reason why the United States of America cannot put more money into education, more money into health, and more money into social security and welfare in a manner that will not be burdensome. I believe that the problems of 1976 will not be primarily problems of money, as serious as they may be. Instead, there probably will be shortages of brainpower to develop the innovative ideas which will be necessary to use that money wisely in accomplishing the purposes that the American people think are desirable.

So I believe this is a fitting time for you to meet and talk about problems of innovation. In each of the fields that the Federal Government is going to increase its investment to 10 or 20 billion dollars a year by 1976, we must seek innovative development; we cannot continue the old ineffective methods. For example, one cannot envisage putting more money into the inefficient methods of medical care distribution which presently exist. With the rapid rise in costs, the average cost of a hospital day soon will be $100. Something new must be added -- some new economy and efficiency of operation in the distribution of medical care benefits must be developed.

Something new must also be developed in the field of welfare. Today, 9 million people are on the welfare roles. Though this figure is tremendous, there are still some 25 million people living at the poverty level who are without any welfare program. In the decade of the seventies, we will develop new and imaginative programs that will change the whole character of handling welfare and income maintenance to deal with the problem of poverty. Looking ahead, I believe that it is entirely possible by 1976 -- the two hundredth anniversary of the independence of our country -- for the United States to have eliminated the problem of poverty as an economic problem.

But there will remain, of course, many other problems. Eliminating economic poverty will not, in itself, educate the people of poverty, provide job training, or increase their ability to function in an increasingly complex society. As we tackle these social problems, that of educational innovation is really the most crucial, the most important, the most pervasive, and the most significant to solve in the next decade.

There is no question that if we wanted to eradicate poverty as an economic problem, we could do so overnight. It would cost only about 11 billion dollars a year to do so. While 11 billion dollars is a lot of money, it certainly is not beyond the competence of the United States. Funds for poverty would represent only 1½ percent of our 850 billion dollar gross national product. Therefore, the ultimate question is: Shall we take the other measures, in the long run, to improve education and job training, to increase motivation, and to improve the health and well-being of the people in order to permanently eradicate poverty?

If all of us decided that we were going to take the necessary steps in the education field, eight years would give us the opportunity to lay a ground work, develop a plan, finance it, obtain the manpower, and persuade the people of the United States that it could be done. This opportunity lies before us;

it is neither unreal nor impractical. If the plan captured the imagination of the American people, they would be willing to put it into effect because the American people are committed, deeply committed to the idea that education is the solution to many of their problems.

You have an exciting opportunity before you today, the opportunity to think and to devise educational plans and programs which the American people can support. But, you must present a blueprint that they can understand, that they can see, and that they can feel. If you do that, then I think you are giving your time and effort to the future of the United States of America.

INNOVATING FOR NATIONAL PRIORITIES IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

Harold Howe, II
U.S. Commissioner of Education
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Recently I ran across the following words that were, I'm told, carefully carved out on stone by an anonymous Assyrian in 450 B.C.:

"Our earth is degenerate in these latter days; bribery and corruption are common; children no longer obey their parents: everyman wants to write a book, and the end of the world is evidently approaching."

I bring up this ancient wisdom here as a useful reminder that we con't blame everything on Dr. Spock, or Ho Chi Min, or even on progressive education.

Besides, in these difficult days I thought I ought to open on a cheerful note.

I'm delighted to be here. And to congratulate the President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services, and the State advisory councils, on this most constructive start to what I hope will be a close and creative working relationship under the revised Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

The 1967 amendments to the ESEA Title III Program have altered the original ground rules, but not the original goal.

That goal was and is to improve the quality of education in America by encouraging, in the most productive ways possible, the widespread adoption of constructive new ideas and practices in education. The billion dollars and more appropriated annually under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act exists to help our schools better serve those who most need their help--the children from families which have missed out on the American dream, from families with unemployed, absent and illiterate parents. Title III provides one-fifth of that amount as venture capital to help our schools explore the elusive byways of better service to all pupils--the sons and daughters of fortunate as well as unfortunate Americans.

Title III was born of the conviction that if our schools did not change--if they did not seem capable of coming up with adequate, let alone imaginative, ways of meeting the mounting educational needs of the Nation's young--it was not because our schools and communities were empty of creative ideas and individuals. The problem was that our schools, and our school systems, needed a stimulant to seek out new ideas, to risk the failure, the controversy, the difficulty that must inevitably accompany the new and the different, the untried and the untested. Our schools naturally hesitated to take the chances that real and radical change required. They lacked resources to take risks in new programs. Sometimes they lacked ideas and leadership.

Title III is a way of taking those chances. It can provide new resources to develop ideas; it can be used to stimulate leadership potential. On the one hand, it offers every school in America with a promising educational idea an opportunity to prove that idea's worth. On the other, it provides a mechanism for stimulating imaginative educational ideas, and for giving those of greatest promise enough money really to make a difference in their own communities, in surrounding communities, and in communities throughout the country.

The success of Title III must continue to rest on its ability to find and free the talent which exists at the local level, and to focus that talent on local problems which are significant enough to have implications for many localities. The success of these endeavors will very much depend upon how fruitful is the conversation beginning here today.

One of the most predominant words in this conversation will doubtless be the word "innovation." We've used that word so much in education that all you have to do is sort of wave it in front of an educator and he either gets all glassy-eyed and stands up and salutes, or he gets all red-eyed and starts snorting like a bull.

I don't know that we can do much about the second reaction, but I think we can do something about the first. We can begin to think more realistically about the distinction between innovation and change. We can begin to realize that genuine innovation is about as rare as a whooping crane--and about as prolific. Very seldom in the affairs of men does there appear a really brand-new idea that was never thought of before. What usually occurs--and what we often call innovation--is a new combination of older elements, or a new application for an older process, or a new cut to some old cloth, or transfer of a productive idea to a place where it is not known or practiced.

And what we're talking about most of the time in Title III are these kinds of changes, which frequently are not entirely new. Instead, they are techniques or ideas that are not widely used or understood, but probably ought to be.

We are also talking in Title III, not simply about the existence of these changes, but about their influence and their effectiveness. We are talking about showing the world, so to speak, how these different ideas and techniques work, or don't work--what their strengths and weaknesses are--so that the world can adopt them, or what is more likely, adapt them to different circumstances and needs.

The idea of Title III is not simply to create little islands of innovation unrelated either to each other or the world outside. The idea is to create lighthouses of change that educators simply cannot avoid seeing and trying to navigate by.

In trying to build these lighthouses--and brighten their beams--I think we should keep a number of things in mind.

First, aside from religion and, possibly, family life, education is one of the most difficult areas in which to promote innovation and change. And for many reasons. People tend to look at their children as extensions of themselves, and to want them either to become what they are or to become what they were unable to be. Either way, people have a tremendous emotional investment--ego identification, in psychological jargon--in their children. And they don't take kindly to "outside interference" in the upbringing of those children.

We often find a similar resistance to change in the educational establishment itself. Any endeavor as large and labyrinthine as the Nation's education enterprise is bound to be difficult to bend. It is bound to serve, for some people, as a good place to hide and to hibernate. The school mechanism inevitably is geared to running as smoothly as possible, and to rejecting or resisting anything that tries to alter its course or shift its rhythms. And to a greater or lesser degree, those who serve it may come to identify their own survival with the customary ways of doing things--as if the slightest change would bring down the whole edifice.

To put it simply, innovation and change in their very essence are deeply disturbing to established ways of doing things--and to those who tend to confuse their own security and salvation with the status quo. As a result, innovation is inherently unpopular--its very existence is likely to be interpreted as an implied criticism of things as they are. And a lot of people will take it personally.

The point is not that the establishment is evil, or the people in it unworthy. For it isn't, and they aren't. Rather, the message is that if innovation is to be accepted, and therefore effective, it must involve a very real effort to understand the concerns and cares of those who may sometimes appear hostile. The willingness of innovators to recognize that their very enthusiasm may arouse the antagonism of others, and to bend much more than halfway to allay that antagonism, seems to be essential to innovation if it is to have broad influence.

Along with an understanding of others, I think that effective innovation has to contain some "understanding" of itself, some element of continual "self-questioning." It's the easiest thing in the world for an innovator to become as dogmatic in his enthusiasm as the "establishment" can become in its antipathy. Not only do the innovations of today have a way of becoming the vested interests of tomorrow, but innovators sometimes become so enamored with their own innovations, so defensive in the face of criticism and aggressive in the face of resistance, that they become as much the enemies of change as the doughtiest defenders of the status quo. There is, in short, the danger that the innovator himself may become closed to change. He must, of course, have enough confidence in his own course to say, "These things have worked; we think this is why; and we think they will work for you." But when the innovator says, "This is the only way to do it," at that moment he goes out of the innovation business.

A third thing we ought to keep in mind is the distinction between the innovator and the evaluator, and indeed, even the need for a little disquiet between them. To put it another way, the need for independence is just as important in evaluation as it is in innovation. The very enthusiasm that impels the innovator to strike out on a new course, often with obstacles at every turn, makes him something less than a good judge of his own cause. The best innovators are often the worst evaluators.

These are some of the things it seems to me we need to keep in mind about innovation, if we expect it to be really effective. In trying to promote it through Title III, we must strive constantly to maintain high standards of selectivity, and in doing so to avoid duplication. Anytime there are so-called "free" public funds, there is an understandable but unfortunate inclination--sometimes it amounts to a kind of passion--to give everybody a little in an attempt to make everybody happy. So everybody gets home and nobody gets enough, especially those who might use it most creatively. Title III will succeed only to the degree that is stringently selective, that it picks the truly superior projects and puts enough money into them so that they can make a significant difference.

I assure you that those of us in the Federal Government are amply aware of the powerful pressures to spread the money thin. We have tried as best we could to resist such pressures. We have not been entirely successful, but neither have we caved in. As of June of this year, some 6,720 projects had been submitted for approval during the first three fiscal years of Title III. We had approved 2,639, or 39 percent of them. We have committed $241,891,000 to these projects for an average expenditure of $92,000. We shall be interested to see the numbers which emerge from the State administration of this program.

Beyond these general considerations concerning innovation and the innovative aims of Title III, there lies probably the most crucial question of all--the question of national aspirations, of what areas or aspects of education most clearly command Title III investments.

It is often said, in distinguishing between Title I and Title III, that Title I deals with need and Title III with innovation or change, that Title I, as I suggested earlier, exists because traditionally we have not done enough for those most in need, and that Title III exists because those things we have done have not been good enough. There are those who not only distinguish between "need" and "innovation," between Title I and Title III, but who carry that distinction so far as to consider those two programs mutually exclusive.

I find this an unfortunate exercise in semantics. There is no inherent conflict between Title I and Title III. I am convinced, on the contrary, that Title I and Title III are and ought to be complementary programs and that, ideally, they can and should be combined in projects whose purpose is to explore the most promising solutions to our most pressing educational problems.

My own list of priorities would place first the need to find ways of succeeding with those children our schools fail to reach and teach. Once upon a time we could get away with saying it was the children's fault, and not the schools'. In those days not everybody entered school; of those who did, many drifted away; and if you lacked a formal education, you could still survive and might even become a pillar of society. Today, almost every youngster not only enters school but is confronted with the necessity of succeeding there if he is to remain afloat as unskilled jobs dwindle and disappear and skilled jobs require greater and greater skills.

Beyond this, most of us have come to realize that our schools can and ought to do a lot more for our children. We have come to realize that every child is different in thousands of ways. We have come to realize that a lot of things in the home and in the community have a powerful influence on how well a child does in school. We have come to realize that, even if it were desirable, we simply cannot shape the child to fit the school. So we have got to find ways of shaping the schools to fit the children, each of them a unique individual.

The main business of our schools, it seems to me, is to make children successful, each child in his own way. If the child fails, the school has failed. Education in America has got to be more than merely the survival of the most pliable, in which the child that is best molded to the system goes the farthest. And our schools have got to be more than simply a sorting device that determines which children shall be accepted by our society and which rejected.

For many children, the problem of schooling which produces failure rather than success starts in a school which is racially segregated. Somehow these children come to feel that they are second-class citizens of America, that white children will get the chance to move ahead while they must settle for less. I find it astonishing that there are those in this day and age who tell us that our schools are for education, not desegregation, as if the two had nothing to do with each other. All our research and all our experience confirm the conclusion that the Supreme Court was correct in 1954 about the harmful effects of racially segregated schools on the educational achievement of minority group children. In the context of this research, and in the broader context of the future of the American society, it seems to me that excellence and desegregation in education are, for all of America's children, inseparable goals: one implies the other.

I think I am something of an authority on how incendiary an issue this can be. I know that anyone who tries to deal with this issue of racial isolation through a Title III project will awaken all sorts of concerns in this community, in addition to the usual difficulties that confront the innovator.

But this issue cuts across the problems that face us as a society; and, if education is to be relevant to that society, it cannot refuse to face it. The aim of Title III is to encourage constructive and creative educational change. Certainly the breakdown of segregated patterns of schooling is one avenue for such change.

This is an area where I think the Federal Government has to be extremely sensitive about the use of its funds. I think we have to be particularly careful to avoid subsidizing segregation, directly or indirectly, in the Nation's schools. More important, I think that with Title III projects, and others, we need to do all we can to show how important it is for different kinds of people from different backgrounds and different races and different income levels to go to school together. Where is it more important to demonstrate the ideal of one society than in the schools?

Another item on my list of priorities is the need to enlist the resources outside our schools on behalf of education. I think this is one of the few subjects on which almost everybody inside and outside education agrees: our schools can't do the job of educating our children alone. And this is one area in which Title III has done well.

There are almost endless, useful ways of bringing the resources of the community to bear upon the education of our children: by the new media, by taking the children out of the school to museums and businesses and libraries, by bringing craftsmen and parents and others into the school, by a variety of other imaginative relationships between schools and the broader community outside them.

This is one respect in which our schools are changing. Across the country schools are opening their doors to the world outside, and letting the outside world in. Very often the schools are doing this on their own initiative. Sometimes they are doing it because they can't stand all that banging on the doors. Recently, in cities and communities across the country, a new voice has been raised--the voice of the poor and the disadvantaged who insist that no longer will their views go unheard and unheeded. No longer will they let the schools tell them, "We know what's best for your children, and we're going to give it to them whether it brings success or not." They want a strong say in the education of their children, and in the affairs of the schools their children attend. The new State advisory councils should certainly include members who genuinely represent the poor and the disadvantaged. And I think this whole area of the involvement of the poor and the disadvantaged in the affairs of their schools and in the education of their children is one worth a good deal of attention under Title III projects.

There are certainly other priorities to advance. I am sure it is possible to make some important suggestions which I have omitted. Some school districts will find their priority problems in other areas of curriculum and pupil service. But if I have to pick an agenda for experimentation in America's schools, an agenda which will reach toward a tomorrow of which we can be proud, it will involve, first of all, finding the way to enlist in support of the schools those people who now are least well served by them. I put emphasis on these items lest they be forgotten in the midst of a variety of other proposals.

Although we would not like to admit it, some of what we have called education--in this country as in others, in our time as in times past--has been little more than a painful process of pulling children into the past, of arresting development as much as encouraging it.

I would hope that through efforts such as Title III, we can somehow reverse that process. I would hope that we could build into all our institutions of education an openness to change at a time when change in all components of our society is in the ascendent.

The distinguished geneticist, Theodore Dobzhansky has observed, "Man and man alone knows that the world evolves and that he evolves with it. By changing what he knows about the world man changes the world he knows; and by changing the world in which he lives man changes himself."

That is a lesson we are beginning to learn, and would do well to remember--in school and out.

STATUS OF PACE

Introduction

Norman E. Hearn
Chief, Program Analysis and Dissemination Branch
Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers
U. S. Office of Education

Three years ago the Congress delivered to the Office of Education a billion-dollar package for programs in education -- the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Most of this package was aimed at a specific population -- deprived children, though other parts of it were for books and materials, for research and development, and for leadership development in State agencies. But part of it, Title III, was for innovation, or as we christened it, the Projects to Advance Creativity in Education (PACE).

I wanted a piece of this action; and, fortunately, I got it in the form of responsibilities to develop, evaluate, and disseminate the PACE program.

I recruited a staff -- Dick Goulet, former Peace Corps man, David Iwamoto, a former NEA research man, and Neal Shedd, a developer associated with the science youth program -- and set up shop to accomplish the task.

Never in my 20 years in education have I spent a more stimulating and frustrating three years!

Stimulating, because PACE brought us in contact with the most energetic and creative people in American education. Frustrating, because we couldn't possibly accomplish the mission under the limitations imposed by the budget constraints. As it turned out, the Division had an amount equal to approximately .01 percent of the Title III appropriation to develop, manage, evaluate, and disseminate the PACE program.

And when that budget-pie was cut, development, evaluation, and dissemination functions necessarily were given second priority, since it was mandatory that the flood of 6,700 proposals be processed, evaluated, negotiated, and managed.

We were forced, therefore, to be "innovative" in order to get even the minimum evaluation and dissemination job accomplished.

Here is a capsule account of what we undertook with a little bit of money and good fortune.

After generally adapting Egon Guba's "Strategy for Diffusion of Innovations," we undertook the following activities:

1. Collected, tabulated, compiled, and summarized all of the 2,800 proposals in several formats, including putting all proposals into the ERIC system and publishing Pacesetters in Innovation, a PACE report by 105 categories.

2. Collected, summarized, and annotated dissemination materials -- films, guides, evaluations -- from projects and made them available through the ERIC clearinghouse and through bibliographies.

3. Developed a linkage of project directors through PACEreport, a periodical.

4. Began a "like-project" approach to conferences, such as the Nova Educational Park Conference and the Outdoor Education Conference on Evaluation, with resulting publications. Related activities included stimulation of films on individualized instruction and on central city projects undertaken by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (TEPS).

5. Helped plan and direct several conferences and seminars on educational innovation through mini-grants, cooperating with foundations and State education agencies. The largest effort was, of course, the three Seminars on Innovation which were attended by nearly half of the project directors operating the first year.

6. Conducted, through various channels, several studies of Title III, including:

   a. Dr. Richard Miller's two studies by national scholars.

   b. A New York University followup study of terminated projects.

   c. An analysis of the end-of-project reports.

   d. A Catholic University study of nonpublic school participation.

7. Funded or influenced several studies, i.e., "Regional Centers" and Dissemination Research."

8. Experimented with an orientation program for project directors by making our office and files available for directors who could be with us as PACE Fellows for a week or two.

All this was part of our effort, in addition to the usual speech writing, position papers, legislative proposals, program planning and budgeting, onsite project visits, project exhibits and demonstrations at the U.S. Office of Education, and staff work for the Advisory Council. I hate to think of our unfulfilled plans, such as:

1. A national network of demonstration or model schools.

2. A national evaluation center.

3. A regional dissemination network that would include traveling PACEmobiles and educational catalysts.

4. State dissemination and evaluation models.

5. A local systems approach model for educational evaluation.
6. A training and exchange program for new project directors.
7. An Innovation Fair of PACE Projects.

We did not do all that should have been done nor all that can be done to evaluate or disseminate educational innovation through PACE. But the optimist looks at what he has done and says it is good; the pessimist looks at what was not done and says it is bad. The realist looks at what must be done, and moves on.

This conference is, in one sense, a symbolic "turnover of the keys" for the administration of Title III projects to States. This conference is structured to acquaint you with our frustrations in the administration of Title III, our observations as to where we may have failed or succeeded and our hopes for the program's future.

We have asked therefore, as a beginning, two persons who have lived with the program in an evaluation capacity to present what they have recorded and noticed during the three years of its operation:

David Iwamoto will provide a statistical overview and Richard Miller will discuss the findings of his most recent study.

STATUS OF PACE

Statistical Overview

David Iwamoto
Chief, Analysis Section
Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers
U.S. Office of Education

At this moment, there are 1,800 active ESEA Title III projects in the United States, costing about $200 million. During fiscal year 1969, approximately 1,000 of these projects will be refunded and administered by the States; approximately 200 will be refunded and administered by the U.S. Office of Education; and 600 will be terminated. Because of the expected low appropriation for fiscal year 1969, very few new Title III projects will probably be funded.

An analysis of the distribution of Title III projects reveals three predominant trends: (1) Projects cluster in large population centers, yet appear to be proportionately distributed between urban and non-urban school-age populations. Large population centers represent fewer than 4,000 of the nation's 20,000 school systems, but serve about 80 percent of the school-age population, while the great majority of school systems are in non-urban areas but serve only 20 percent of the school-age population. (2) Projects seem to gravitate to counties with high average educational attainment, though some are funded in counties with low average educational attainment. (3) Projects are more often funded in counties with high average family income.

About 10 million persons are participating in ESEA Title III projects. About 6 million of the 10 million participate in short-term programs involving large numbers of participants such as concerts, trips to museums, educational television programs, theater, school assemblies, and library projects. About 4 million persons are participating in long-term, relatively extensive, small-unit programs which involve new curriculums, new classroom procedures, laboratories of all types, and guidance and counseling.

Whenever possible, pupils from nonpublic schools are encouraged to participate in Title III programs. Over one million pupils from nonpublic schools participated in Title III projects in 1968. This represents about 12 percent of all pupils participating in Title III projects. Nationally, about 85 percent of all school-age pupils attend public schools, and 15 percent attend nonpublic schools. About 13,000 teachers from nonpublic schools received some sort of inservice training through projects funded under Title III. This figure represents four percent of all teachers receiving some kind of inservice training under Title III. Nationally about 87 percent of all teachers teach in public schools, and 12 percent teach in nonpublic schools. These figures show that the participation of nonpublic school children in Title III projects is fairly representative, but the number of nonpublic school teachers receiving inservice training through Title III is not proportionate.

Certain educational areas have been designated as being critical to the Nation. One of these areas is early childhood education. There are 12.5 million children ages 3 to 5 in the United States. About 135,000 of these children are participating in 204 Title III projects, costing a total of $12 million.

Another area of national concern is that of education for the handicapped. Beginning in fiscal year 1969, at least 15 percent of the total ESEA Title III appropriation must be used to fund projects for the handicapped. In fiscal year 1968, $15 million or 8 percent of the total Title III funds was used to fund such projects. Under the new requirement, at least $25 million in Title III funds will go into projects for the handicapped.

About $37 million is being used for projects concerned with individualizing instruction: $17 million, for nongraded classrooms; $4 million, for team teaching projects; $4 million, for projects involving flexible scheduling; $7 million, for computer-assisted instruction; $1 million, for programmed instruction; and $4 million, for projects involving independent study.

Projects concerned with minority groups involved $7 million. Of this, $900,000 is being used for projects which seek to improve interracial understanding through student or teacher exchange; $1,800,000, for bilingual education projects; $300,000, for migrant education; $800,000, to design multi-racial curriculums; and $3 million was spent on projects aimed at improving human relationships.

Many Title III projects are concerned with particular subject areas. Children participating in arts projects, for example, included 21,000 preschool children, 530,000 public school elementary and secondary school students, and 85,000 nonpublic school students. 1,000 preschool students participated in mathematics projects; 617,000 public school elementary and secondary school students participated, and 18,000 nonpublic school students participated. Science projects involved 25,000 preschool students, 887,000 public school elementary and secondary school students and 84,000 nonpublic school students. 8,000 preschool children participated in foreign language projects; 199,000 public school elementary and secondary school students participated, and 61,000 nonpublic school students participated. Children participating in language arts projects included 26,000 preschool children, 1,022,000 public school elementary and secondary school students, and 61,000 nonpublic school students.

The Congressional appropriation for Title III in fiscal year 1969, is expected to be $165 million. This sum is $22 million less than the $287 million appropriated in fiscal year 1968, and represents only 32 percent of the authorized $512,500,000. The difference between the Title III authorization and appropriation has grown each year.

Many studies of Title III and the results of the program up to this point have been made and are being made. Evidence of the success of the Title III program is revealed by these studies, some of which are listed below:

1. The Creativity of ESEA Title III Project Directors in the States of Illinois and Indiana as Compared with the Creativity of Selected School Administrators.

2. Investigation of Public and Nonpublic School Cooperation in ESEA Title III Projects.

3. A Followup Study of 245 ESEA Title III Projects After Federal Funds Were Terminated.

4. A Search for New Energy (Results of an On-Site Evaluation of 60 ESEA Title III Projects.)

5. An Evaluation of Regional PACE and EDP Centers in California.

6. A Survey to Identify the Characteristics of Directors of Innovative Projects.

7. Educational Change--The Reality and the Promise (Report of the National Seminar on Innovation, 1967.)

8. ESEA Title III Evaluation of Projects.

STATUS OF PACE

National Evaluation Reports

Richard I. Miller
Director of the Program on Educational Change, and
Acting Chairman of the Department of Social and
Philosophical Studies in Education,
University of Kentucky

On September 23, 1965, American education turned an historic corner when President Johnson signed the authorization bill for The Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965. While Federal support of education has been evident at least from the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and the Morrill Act of 1865, the 1965 authorization marked a degree of financial support of unprecedented proportions.

The most imaginative and exciting aspect of the ESEA package has been Title III, known as PACE. Perhaps it would be useful at this point to review very briefly the uniquenesses of this Title *as conducted during the first two years*. Seven points are given in the report of the first national study:

1. Title III is unique in its broad mandate.
2. It is 100 percent money to local agencies--real money for the first time.
3. PACE has a built-in requirement for community participation.
4. Title III establishes 50 state contests as well as one national one since approval is competitive.
5. It emphasizes innovativeness and creativity in its projects.
6. The extent of Congressional interest in the program is unique.
7. The Federal-State relationship is unique.

I will come back to some of these points later.

As many of you know, I have been intimately involved in ESEA Title III activities for most of its short but thus far exciting and productive life. This relationship has included serving as director of the first national study of the Title, resulting in the green-covered report that was published by the *Senate Subcommittee on Education*. */ The relationship has included an independent, computerized evaluation of the Kettering I/D/E/A -USOE PACE Hawaiian Conferences. *PACEreport* was initiated from the University of Kentucky a little over one year ago, since it was believed that some national publication on

---

*/ *Notes and Working Papers Concerning the Administration of Programs Authorized Under Title III of Public Law 89-10, The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 As Amended by Public Law 89-750*. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, April 1967, 557 pp.

PACE is desirable. This publication is done on a financial shoestring, with many of us contributing our time and energies to it. And a fourth organized PACE activity is the present second year national study, which will be wrapped up in less than two months.

The two national studies have been difficult but challenging, and I believe their success, or at least speaking for the first one, has been due to the dedication brought to the task by many of the finest educators in the Nation who have served as special consultants and in other capacities. You will recognize many of them: the late Hilda Taba, Harold Gores, Harold Spears, Robert Havighurst, Thomas Pettigrew, Egon Guba, William Alexander, Don Bushnell, Don Davies, James Finn, Norman Kurland, Harry Passow, Sam Kirk, Dorothy Fraser, Arthur Hitchcock, Patrick Toole, Arthur King, and many others.

The two studies have involved many surveys and special studies, many meetings, close to 200 project site visits by study team members, analyses of several hundred proposals, close liaison with the USOE, and information about PACE activities from every available source. Yet we have maintained complete independence in terms of doing and saying what we wish.

This morning I would like to preview some conclusions, recommendations, and observations that have grown out of these experiences with PACE. The report will be in four sections: First, I would like to give the rationale for a comprehensive model that will be one of the five separate volumes making up this year's national study.

A second section will focus on recommendations that grow out of a detailed and careful study and analysis of 137 terminal (or final) reports. A special study team worked on this task.

A third section will present some findings of a seven-page, computerized survey of 920 PACE project directors.

And a final section will include some general observations and conclusions.

A "Comprehensive Model"

Turning to the first section: One aspect of the national study is "a comprehensive model for managing an ESEA Title III project from conception to culmination."

The concept of total planning is just making its debut in education. In fact, the techniques for this procedure, growing out of military and industrial needs, are barely ten years old. The need for a more comprehensive approach to educational planning is obvious as projects (a) become more complex, (b) become larger, (c) call for greater allocations of money, and (d) continue for a longer period of time.

PACE has served to dramatize the glaring need that exists in United States education for better planning--a need that is not confined to this Nation as indicated by a recent publication by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, entitled OECD and Educational Planning and Development.

Those who have carefully studied ESEA Title III report some improvement in project quality as a result of the guideline requirements for planning as a result of several models for planning and evaluation.

Most prominent among these models are the "CIPP" Model by Daniel Stufflebeam, a/ a systems model by Donald Miller and Operation PEP, b/ an evaluation model by Robert Hammond, c/ and a systems analysis for self-evaluation. d/ These efforts constitute recent and ecnouraging efforts to bring more systematic planning and evaluation into education.

One might ask: Why yet another model? Perhaps two answers are relevant: (1) We are just beginning to approach PACE in an orderly fashion, and therefore all kinds of approaches are necessary in order that further sifting can take place; and (2) none of the present models is comprehensive. In other words, they do not apply to every important phase of the project, from its inception to termination. Such a comprehensive approach could facilitate more effective operation by:

1. Assisting all parties concerned with a PACE proposal in tying their efforts together to the total purposes and thrusts of the particular project. These parties are proposal writers, project operators, project evaluators (inside and outside), and State and Federal officials.

2. Assisting those involved most directly in each of the subsequently mentioned segments in systematically considering their tasks.

3. Providing a procedure for evaluating projects that will be more likely to result in self-adjustment and improvement by providing useful feedback data.

4. Assisting educators to think more systematically about their concerns.

---

a/ Daniel L. Stufflebeam is director of The Evaluation Center at The Ohio State University, and he is special advisor for his national study. Description of CIPP may be obtained by writing him at the Evaluation Center.

b/ Donald R. Miller is director of Operation PEP, Preparation for Educational Planners, Burlingame, California, and he is a member of the project directors' advisory group for this study. Address: 1870 El Camino Real, Burlingame, California 94010

c/ Robert L. Hammond was director of Project EPIC, Evaluative Programs for Innovative Curriculums, Tucson, Arizona, and he is a member of the project directors' advisory group for this study. Dr. Hammond is now with the Evaluation Center at The Ohio State University.

d/ Edward J. Ambry, director, The New Jersey State Council for Environment Education, Board of Education, Newark, New Jersey.

This model should be considered suggestive rather than prescriptive. The user is asked to consider each variable listed, but he should not be expected to find all of them applicable. The variables, however, should serve as reminders of points that may be relevant. One should not view this model as a limitation upon freedom of choice; rather, as an expansion of it. Points raised in this model might not have been considered otherwise, and therefore the project director's freedom is increased by having a wider range of alternatives.

The model is composed of four sections, each of which has numerous subsections:

1.0 PROPOSAL DEVELOPMENT (yellow section)
2.0 FIRST YEAR APPRAISAL (blue section)
3.0 SECOND YEAR APPRAISAL (red section)
4.0 THIRD YEAR APPRAISAL (green section)

This model is designed to assist in developing all phases of a PACE project. As such, it could be useful for (a) those who write projects, (b) those who operate projects, and (c) those who evaluate projects both in terms of general improvement and in terms of continuation. Officials who approve and evaluate on-going projects need a standard against which to make their suggestions and judgments.

As mentioned earlier, the 93-page comprehensive model report will be one of the five reports produced by this year's national study.

A Study Of 137 Terminated Projects

The second section of this report pertains to an evaluation of terminated projects, as judged from a random sampling of final reports submitted by one- and two-year projects. As you know, each project is required to submit a final report, following a rather modest set of guidelines, outlined in the Guidelines for PACE.

A team of four educators, representing an experiential element leaning toward public school administration, spent several hundred manpower hours examining the 137 projects, using an instrument especially developed for this process and using a detailed general appraisal of each project.

The report on this study, in essence, will include these observations:

In terms of overall appraisal of the 137 completed projects, the study team rated 19 as outstanding, 57 as good, 30 as average, 25 as poor, and 6 as very poor.

In fairness, one should take into account the fact that most of the 137 projects represented early funded projects. Later projects, beginning with the second year, have displayed a more sophisticated approach.

But even considering the early nature of our sample, a substantial number of projects were rated as average and poor. This finding should be considered in light of the great difficulty of judging field success--where it really counts--of the project as opposed to the paper picture. Members of the PACE national study team have been impressed by what they found in the field as compared with the project proposals. So one must view findings from analyses of terminal reports, no matter how carefully undertaken, with some skepticism.

With an understanding of the limitations of our paper tiger, nevertheless, we believe it represents a useful dimension of this year's national effort. Every project is required to submit a terminal report. From these efforts, one should be able to glean something about how public money has been used to improve public education.

Without going into the details of the larger report, I would like to turn to nine recommendations, touching upon each only briefly. You will readily conclude that several recommendations pertain to matters that are not exclusively related to terminal reports. This overlap is to be expected, in view of the prescribed focus of the study team. Furthermore, the overlap highlights problems that are in common with other aspects of ESEA Title III. Based upon this study, the following recommendations for future action are suggested:

I. Every project proposal should be required to submit evidence that those developing the project have a good grasp of the local area, both in terms of needs and resources.

This evidence does not have to be a needs assessment study if the project is a single idea or a program; still, some evidence of local considerations should be evident.

II. *Every proposed supplementary center type of PACE program should include a reasonably thorough needs assessment study.*

A statement or assessment of needs should include the identification of goals, processes for goal attainment, and specification of areas of greatest needs and deficiencies. Most terminal reports included little or nothing about how issues or programs were selected; and, in many other instances, this essential aspect of the report covering the supplementary center type of project was either minimized or omitted.

III. *State departments of education need to give careful consideration to the type of terminal reports that will provide a fitting climax to a PACE Project, will meet legal requirements of reporting, and will allow essential findings to be disseminated effectively.*

Our study found that most projects omitted one or more types of information, such as: project title, type of project, grant number, period of time, amount of the grant, number of students to be served, cost per student, number of school districts involved, the name of the State, and so forth.

The study team had no idea how sloppy, inaccurate, and incomplete it would find the final reports, *in most cases*. Those who submit such reports are guilty of professional negligence and fiscal irresponsibility, and they need to be dealt with accordingly. If this message seems overstated, one need only to examine the end-of-project reports submitted by most projects.

IV. *Involvement of community resources and personnel should be more carefully considered; it should be realistic and should have adequate follow-through.*

No promises should be made that cannot be kept; no obligations should be incurred that cannot be met.

A majority of the projects studied are guilty of overextension and superficiality on community relations. The project developers promise too much, involve too many, and analyze too little the HOW of effective community involvement.

V. *All projects should have effective evaluation procedures--effective in terms of stated objectives and planned programs.*

The call for better evaluation is an old saw, if the three years of PACE history is old, but the call needs to be made again and again.

In only one or two instances out of 94 planning projects can one glean from the proposal a serious and sophisticated concern about evaluation--a concern that viewed evaluation as a vital part of the day-to-day monitoring process as well as a judgmental decision reflecting success or failure of the program.

VI. Every PACE proposal should have a separate budget item for evaluation, and this figure should not be less than five percent of the total budget.

Only a small number of the terminated projects included plans for evaulation, and even these appeared to be afterthoughts or were non-integral parts of the project structure. While there is reason to believe that evaluation has improved during the last year, the level is still far below what is desirable and what is needed.

VII. More evidence of planning should be required in future PACE proposals.

The study team was aware of the dilemma between over-planning and over-structuring on the one hand, and a relaxed, pragmatic approach to design on the other hand, but evidence gained from the 137 terminal reports lead us to believe that greater emphasis should be placed on planning and design in all future proposals.

VIII. Provisions for continuation after termination of ESEA Title III funding should become more evident in the future.

The newness of PACE, the unexplored parameters of its guidelines, and the unknown labyrinths of Federal assistance have all mitigated against serious consideration of what might take place when the planning grant ended. But as we look ahead, profiting from the past, continuation considerations should become more important without becoming a requirement for approval.

IX. Future PACE planning grants should be allocated on a sharing basis with local communities--something in the dollar range of 8 or 10 to 1.

The study team found that where local funds were committed to the project, it was better planned, the objectives more clearly stated and the procedures for realizing the major goals of the project more adequately outlined. Furthermore, the study team believed that a local share of the project expenses--even if small--enhanced prospects of local continuation after termination of Federal money. Also, dissemination and implementation are expedited by a sharing basis, and a more receptive climate is created for continuation.

A Study of Views of 920 Project Directors

A third section focuses upon the questionnaire study of opinions of project directors. On March 27, 1968, a seven-page questionnaire was sent to 1400 project directors. Hence, the working sample may be said to be 920 returns, or 65.7 percent of the whole population.

The separate report on this study will go into the involved statistical procedures used and into considerably more material that I will present here. I would like to present now some findings of the survey on nine questions.

1. What have been the four most difficult problems encountered by your project in its operation?

Nine hundred and twenty respondents gave the following rating, in terms of greatest concerns:

- Number one concern: "continuation after project is terminated"
- Number two: "evaluation"
- Number three: "delay in funding and in approving modifications"
- Number four: "budget problems, such as unseen needs"
- Number five: "communication problems: keeping in touch with school system and others"

2. Which of the factors given below should be given primary emphasis by the State department of education in deciding upon whether or not to approve new projects?

In their response to this question, project directors selected from several alternatives; one conclusion stands out prominently. It is that project directors overwhelmingly oppose the criterion of having "geographical considerations: those areas without on-going PACE projects" as a decision-making factor. They do favor the other three factors, and all three are closely bunched in terms of ratings. These three factors are as follows:

- Needs of the area: "projects to fill definitely established gaps or needs in on-going school programs"
- "Innovativeness and creativity as primary concerns"
- "Merits of proposal in terms of design and quality potential"

3. Project directors were asked: "What criteria do you believe should be given primary weight in evaluating the overall effectiveness of your project?"

From the alternatives available, project directors gave these answers:

- They believed the most important factor in evaluating their projects should be "the extent to which the projects bring about 'constructive change' (improvement) in local education."
- Second, "meeting objectives as set forth in the proposal"
- Third, "innovative and creative (development of new ideas and approaches)"
- And fourth, "development of interest, acceptance, and involvement."

At the other end of the continuum, the least desired criterion was "serving a sizable number of pupils."

4. Project directors responded to this question: "A substantial portion (75 percent) of the ESEA Title III funds will be turned over to state departments of education for administration.

From your perspective, what is likely to be the greatest advantage from this decision?"

Project directors believed that "direct lines of communication" constituted the greatest advantage, with 52 percent listing it.

The second advantage, with 24 percent response, was "knowledge of local problems."

The third advantage, with 9 percent rating, was "better utilization of funds."

Fifteen percent of the respondents gave "no advantage," and one region (Region No. 3) gave a 24 percent "no advantage" response. This region includes: the District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, North Carolina, Virgin Islands, Virginia, and West Virginia.

5. Following a response on "greatest advantage" to State control, project directors were asked "What is likely to be the greatest weakness from this decision?"

The overwhelming weakness given by the project directors boiled down to one word--"politics," with a 61 percent response.

"Lack of qualified State department leadership" to administer the program was the second most frequently mentioned weakness, with a 15 percent rating.

And "lower standards" was third, with 12 percent.

"No weakness" has a 4 percent listing.

The overwhelming percentage response to politics as the greatest weakness is supported at a percentage of 55-plus, in all nine regions.

One notes from multiple correlation techniques that lack of leadership is a prominent factor in Region No. 1, with a 22 percent rating, and in Region No. 6, with a 26 percent figure. These two regions account for 31 percent of the total response for this category:

Region No. 1: Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont

Region No. 6: Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, South Dakota, and North Dakota

Again, by region, the weakness designated as "lower standards" provides a somewhat different picture from the overall 12 percent. For example, 27 percent of Region No. 4, and 22 percent of Region No. 7 listed this factor; and together these regions account for 37 percent of the total response for this category.

Region No. 4: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, Tennessee, South Carolina

Region No. 7: Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma,
Texas, and Canal Zone.

6. Project directors responded to this question: "PACE has been essentially a Federal-to-local program. From what you have learned about direct Federal-local relations from your dealings with Washington, is Federal control a distinct possibility or an exaggerated fear?"

Tabulation of the responses found that 78 percent listed Federal control as "an exaggerated and largely fictional fear," and 22 percent listed it as "a distinct possibility."

7. The next question asked: "Do you favor more or less Federal participation in education based upon your experience with PACE?"

Tabulation of responses found that 90 percent favor "more" Federal participation, and 10 percent favor "less" participation.

When multiple correlations are made of the two items, "distinct possibility" or "exaggerated fear" and "more" or "less," one finds that 14 percent said that Federal control was a "distinct possibility," yet they wanted "more" Federal participation.

Four percent answered that Federal control was a "distinct possibility" and they wanted "less" Federal participation.

Sixty-two percent answered that Federal control was an "exaggerated fear" and that they wanted "more" Federal participation.

And three percent answered that Federal control was an "exaggerated fear" and they wanted "less" Federal participation.

Other survey data will be used in the next section, and of course this preview is just a surface look at a segment of the material available from this study of how 920 project directors view ESEA Title III.

Some General Observations and Conclusions

And finally, I would like to turn to some general observations and conclusions. This section will focus upon some judgment as to how effective PACE has been, some of its main problems, and some thoughts about the future.

The 557-page report on the first national study of PACE gave this overall judgment: "Considering everything--weaknesses and strengths, blunders and triumphs, politics and purity--Title III has thus far achieved outstanding success, probably more so than any other ESEA title. Success is due:

1. To its stimulating and fresh nature, which catches the imagination and zeal of the most dynamic and creative individuals in the public schools.

2. It provides public school people with a unique opportunity. In essence, PACE is betting on the vitality and vigor of American education at the local levels, and the bet is "paying off" contrary to some predictions that localism in education personifies status quo conservatism.

3. Its success is due, in no small measure, to Office of Education Title III leadership, that offered by some States, and certainly to leadership offered at the project level. [a]

But how well does this judgment fit Title III today? In an effort to obtain a more accurate although still very subjective judgment, three different groups were asked to rate on a scale of 0 to 100 how well each of four objectives was being achieved. These four objectives can be said to characterize what PACE has been aiming to accomplish in terms of its legislative mandate, and the degree to which the PACE program as a whole is achieving them is judged by three groups: the 920 project directors, the ESEA Title III State coordinators, and the 19 special consultants for the national study team.

1. The first objective, stated in the form of a question: "Does PACE encourage school districts to develop imaginative solutions to educational problems?"

Seventy-two percent of the project directors rated this category in the 75 to 100 percent of effectiveness range; 67 percent of the State coordinators were in this range, but only 22 percent of the special consultants were there. Sixty-seven percent of the special consultants were in the 25 to 54 percent of effectiveness range.

2. The second objective, again stated as a question: "Does PACE facilitate demonstration of worthwhile innovations in educational practice through exemplary programs?"

Sixty-six percent of the project directors gave achievement of this objective a 75 to 100 percentage of effectiveness; 70 percent of the State coordinators rated this objective in the same range of effectiveness; but only 11 percent of the special consultants used this category of effectiveness. Again, the latter group clustered around the 25 to 54 percent rating of effectiveness, with 56 percent of them there.

3. "Does PACE assist school programs in more effective utilization of the latest knowledge about learning and teaching?"

Fifty-three percent of the project directors used the 75 to 100 percent category; 64 percent of the State coordinators did likewise; and zero percent of the special consultants used it. Sixty-seven percent of the latter group were in the 25 to 54 percent category.

---

[a] "Notes and Working Papers....," p. 89.

4. "Has PACE contributed to the creation, design, and intelligent use of supplementary centers and services?"

Fifty-seven percent of the project directors gave this objective the 75 to 100 percentage of effectiveness rating; 46 percent of the State coordinators did likewise; and 22 percent of the special consultants used this category.

Estimates of effectiveness are dramatically different for the special consultants as compared with the project directors and the State PACE coordinators. And between the latter two groups, project directors consistently give higher estimates of effectiveness.

Who is right? Such contrasts in judgment between the experts and the practioners are puzzling because the experts did approach their assignment with a sympathetic and practical vent, and many project directors are able to maintain some detachment and objectivity toward their work. I suspect that some of the differences may reside in the traditional role of criticism that remains an important dimension of the university perspective, and some differences are due to different expectations, with the university oriented special consultants having greater concern for perfection.

Evaluation

The differences observed here lead into a major problem of PACE programs from the beginning--and this problem is evaluation. The problem is really at two levels: the national or State level, and the local level, and the problems are quite different depending upon the level.

At the present time, based upon over two-and-one-half years of searching, I believe that we do not have research designs and procedures that can provide "hard" data on the national level, and the same conclusion applies to a large extent at the State level. I believe an extensive statewide evaluation procedure could be developed if a State were willing to spend the time and a considerable amount of money to gain this objective.

We must be careful, however, not to confuse "hard" data, which are evidences that can stand the tests of rigorous statistical analysis and cross-examination, with "soft" data, which largely come from opinion, survey, structural field visits, and the like. It is important to realize that soft data, if carefully gathered, thoroughly digested, and reasonably reported, can be quite useful. In fact, we need to tidy up our procedures for processing soft data because such input will be around for a long time.

At the local level, evaluation remains perhaps the major problem. The prudent and responsible use of public monies should include defensible procedures for determining where a project is heading, how corrections en route can be made, and what is the final, overall appraisal.

The comprehensive model that constituted the first section of this paper should be helpful at the individual project level.

The first of the five reports that will make up the second national study of ESEA Title III was entitled, *Evaluation and PACE*. The overview section of this report is being printed in two parts in *PACEreport*. Several recommendations are contained in this report, based upon an analysis of the 19 reports by the special consultants.

The Future of PACE

And finally, I would like to turn to the future of PACE. I make these remarks from a strong emotional bias toward what I have seen and heard about the overall program, yet I want to speak directly and frankly.

From what we have been able to observe, study, and feel about the program since the mid-December, 1967, change from Federal to State control, I am not optimistic that the original freshness, vitality, and cutting-edge dimension will be maintained. In fact, I doubt whether it will be possible to keep PACE administration out of the normal line and staff operation of State departments.

This operation in most States performs three vital functions: setting minimum standards, judging these standards, and serving as the fiscal agent for the State government. Again, let me say that these are important functions, but they are regulatory and maintenance functions--and these are quite different from the innovative and creative and demonstration type of programs we need to characterize PACE if it is to stay alive.

And the problem of political interests may in some States be an excessive albatross for organized innovation. At this early stage, one can cite a few instances where the dynamic and exciting edge of PACE has been compromised by political interests. While politics is a vital part of our way of life, our children and youth are the losers when the political interests of very few take precedence over the educational interests of many.

So where do we stand? An acknowledged non-optimistic view should not be confused with pessimism. There is yet hope that the ominous portents looming ahead for ESEA Title III in its new marriage with the States can be thwarted. It seems to me that these five actions are essential:

1. *State advisory councils should become powerful instruments, erring on the side of creativity and dynamism rather than passivity and blanket approval.*

2. *State advisory councils should take every caution against undesirable political interests, which can include geographical considerations and patronage.*

3. *Salary schedules and recruitment procedures for PACE personnel at both the State and project levels should remain outside the normal civil service structure.*

4. The spirit of freshness and venturesomeness that has symbolized ESEA Title III should be restudied, and concrete steps taken to maintain and strengthen it. Related to this point is the degree to which States are able to keep alive and dynamic the second round of three-year projects.

5. The sorting of the wheat from the chaff in terms of project quality will be more difficult at the State level, but effective procedures for these decisions are essential. Of course this requires a more carefully planned evaluation in order that defensible bases for decision making can be brought forth to parry political thrusts.

In his January 1967 inaugural address, Washington's Governor Daniel Evans said: "State governments are unquestionably on trial today. If we are not willing to pay the price, if we cannot change where change is required, then we have only one recourse. And that is to prepare for an orderly transfer of our remaining responsibilities to the Federal government." a/

While State governments are on trial, this period of uncertainty proves a golden opportunity also, and particularly with reference to the challenge of ESEA Title III.

A small, courageous, and dedicated USOE staff has done an outstanding job with PACE, and American education owes them a genuine debt of gratitude. They have set a high standard for those that follow; namely, you. All of us who have continuing faith in Title III must pitch in to help in any way possible to maintain and improve this unique program, but the final decisions that are critical will be made by you.

Perhaps it would be appropriate to end upon these few words from Julius Caesar:

> Men at some time are masters of their fates.
> The fault, dear Brutus, is not in the stars,
> But in ourselves....

---

a/ Quoted in Committee for Economic Development, Modernizing State Government. New York: the Committee, 1967. p. 10.

NATIONAL AND STATE ADVISORY COUNCILS: NEW RELATIONSHIPS

Introduction

Ralph J. Becker
Director, Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers
U.S. Office of Education

This is a time of sharing the decision-making role in education. School people no longer need to urge participation in educational affairs; people are insisting upon it. They demand a voice not only in policy formulation, but also in school operation.

Such demands are both a threat and a promise to educators such as we who represent the so-called "Establishment." It's difficult to become accustomed to so much "help."

ESEA Title III was one of the first national programs that asked school people to share their decision-making role. Title III requires the involvement of many community groups in the development and operation of projects, and this involvement goes beyond the usual PTA and service club representation to include the nonpublic school segment, other cultural agencies in the community, teachers and students, and representatives of low-income groups.

Amended by the 90th Congress, Title III required the establishment of State advisory councils and spelled out their composition and responsibilities. This, I believe, makes Title III a unique piece of Federal legislation.

Though there were many differences of opinion as to the exact role of the State councils during early Congressional discussions, the Senate report finally established that these councils should be relatively independent.

States have handled this new legislation in a variety of ways, but in most cases, the creation of the State advisory council has called into being new kinds of relationships and perhaps a new sharing of the decision-making role.

Certainly, in the year ahead, there will be considerable experimentation in developing and carrying out these new working relationships. The purpose of this panel is to examine the responsibilities of the State advisory councils, the State educational agencies, and the National Advisory Council; the range of their duties; and the degree of their interdependence.

THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL

Congressional Intent

Robert M. Mulligan
Assistant to the Director
Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers
U.S. Office of Education

As we examine the legislative history of the National Advisory Council, we can detect a genuine Congressional desire to create a mechanism for obtaining the information necessary to assure effective legislative response. I believe that something of this intent can be seen in the remarks of Senator Wayne Morse speaking on the floor of the Senate earlier this month. He was at this time participating in a debate on the appropriation bill:

> "I should like to point out two programs on which the Senate has recently acted which serve as examples of the work we have given to the Office of Education in order to provide us with adequate information. Those two programs are Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and the Vocational Education Act. In both acts we require extensive program evaluations by both the Office of Education and the independent advisory councils and reports to Congress on those evaluations. The evaluation and reporting procedures written into those two acts were purposely designed to bridge the information gap which hinders effective legislating.
>
> "These two programs are only examples of our efforts to insure that education programs are properly administered and carry out the intent of Congress. They are two examples of a total of 27 statutory advisory committees or councils which Congress has directed the Office of Education to use in the administration of education programs. Each of these advisory councils submits annual reports to Congress.
>
> "The subcommittee of which I am chairman has studied these annual reports, and much of the information we have needed in order to report good education legislation to the Senate has come from these annual reports.
>
> "If we do not provide the funds necessary to carry out the evaluation, review, and advisory committee functions of our education legislation, we will destroy the effectiveness of the very legislative oversight features which were carefully drawn up in Congress."

These remarks clearly illustrate the interest of Congress in Title III. Obviously, careful attention will be given to the report submitted by the National Advisory Council for Title III. As we examine the legal framework within which the Council can operate, we must conclude that the Council will have to make its own decisions with respect to how it prepares its first report by January 20, 1969. The report should include (1) comments upon the administration and regulations for the program and the operation of the program, including its effectiveness; (2) a review and evaluation of the reports submitted to the National Council by State councils; (3) any recommendations for the improvement of Title III and its administration and operation. In addition, the National Advisory Council is responsible for an independent evaluation of programs and projects carried out under Title III and for the dissemination of the results of such evaluation.

Though the Office of Education is willing to assist in any way it can, by making available such reports and other documents as requested, the burden of responsibility rests largely with the Council. Hopefully, within the next few hours, we will be able to resolve some of the problems with which we are faced so that the Council, in exercising its independence of the U.S. Office of Education, can successfully fulfill its obligations under the law.

THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL

Role and Relationships

William L. Smith
Member, President's National Advisory Council
on Supplementary Centers and Services

Prior to the enactment of the Elementary and Secondary Education Amendments of 1967, the authority for approving applications for Title III grants submitted by local educational agencies was vested in the U.S. Commissioner of Education, acting upon the recommendations of the National Advisory Committee on Supplementary Educational Centers and Services. Under the new legislation, signed into law in January 1968, the former Advisory Committee has been replaced by an independent, Presidentially appointed National Advisory Council, assuring a greater degree of independence of operation. The role of this National Advisory Council, as stated in the law, is to perform these functions:

1. Review the administration of the general regulations for the Title;
2. Review the operation of the Title, including its effectiveness in meeting the purposes for which the federal funds may be used;
3. Review, evaluate, and transmit to the Congress and the President the reports submitted by state advisory councils to the National Council through their respective State educational agencies;
4. Evaluate programs and projects carried out under the Title, and disseminate nationally the results of this evaluation;
5. Make recommendations for the improvement of the Title and its administration and operation;
6. Make an annual report of its findings and recommendations (including recommendations for changes in the law) to the President and the Congress not later than January 20 of each year. The President is requested to transmit to the Congress any comments or recommendations he may have with respect to the report.

As has been pointed out, Congress intended that the Council perform these functions as a completely independent body. Although their responsibilities are different, it appears reasonable to assume that State advisory councils should act with this same sense of independence. In reporting to the National Council, the State council should call attention to those programs within its State which it considers to be exemplary. It should also make arrangements for the dissemination of information concerning these programs within the State itself. The National Council will carry this a step further. As it reviews the reports submitted by State councils, it will select those projects which, in its judgement, should be given National visibility. It will then set in motion the machinery necessary to call such programs to the attention of local educational agencies throughout the United States. Just how this can be done most effectively is a matter for the Council and you to decide. However, if the purpose which underlies Title III is to be realized, it is imperative that practices worthy of emulation and adaptation be given National visibility. The flow of ideas which contribute to the change process in American education will be dependent to a great extent upon the capability of the Council to respond to this challenge.

Another area which will require the Council's concentrated efforts during the next few months will be its responsibility for reviewing the administration and operation of the program. We are all aware of the exceptionally difficult task that has been undertaken by the U.S. Office of Education and each State department of education in the development of State plans for fiscal year 1969. The time has been too short, considering the magnitude of the task, and there are very difficult decisions to make and problems to solve before the work is done. The Council is sensitive to these difficulties, and alert to solutions which may have been overlooked. To this end, it will devote a great deal of time to the formation of recommendations for change. Here, with our arms length independence from the Commissioner, and the considerable talents of our members, the National Council may engage in a kind of objective Sunday-evening-quarterbacking which should do all of us some good. Each State advisory council charged with the additional responsibility of reviewing local applications and recommending action to be taken by the Chief State School Officer must feel the same sense of freedom and independence of action in making its reports.

It is the real and genuine purpose of the National Advisory Council to work in this independent relationship with State advisory councils. We firmly believe that there still is a very strong feeling on the part of the Office of Education and the State departments of education that advisory councils are a worrisome lot. And that, I believe, is our function, both at the National and at the State advisory level--we must be a worrisome lot if we are to act as a catalyst for change!

Dr. Leon Lessinger has made it very clear that, today, citizens who use the service and pay for the service must be involved in the design of the service. Title III is designed this way and must be carried out as such. If it does not, then we are simply perpetuating the same system and the taxpayers and the Congress will not stand for it.

THE STATE ADVISORY COUNCIL

Vital Advisory Bodies

Terrel H. Bell
Utah State Supervisor of Public Instruction

ESEA Title III is one of the few bright pictures on the educational scene today. Most Title III resources, as I see it, should be focused upon bridging the gap between what is and what potentially might be in our elementary and secondary schools. I hope that Title III will not change its focus upon other educational problems--important as they surely are--but that it will continue to concentrate upon invention and development of improved instructional practice. I mention this because I have apprehensions about the future of Title III. A few more Congressional amendments like some we have had in the past will broaden its purpose and dilute its effectiveness. I hope that our colleagues in the U.S. Office of Education will maintain enthusiasm for Title III. With its administrative responsibility shifting more from OE to the SEA's, I am concerned that Federal education officials may not give Title III sufficiently high priority in OE funding requests to Congress.

The Committee for Economic Development, in its recent, excellent monograph entitled "Innovations in Education: New Directions for the American School," had this to say about the responsibility for improving instruction: "The task of improving education is the business of everyone--everyone who is concerned about the future."

People outside of the traditional education establishment must be represented in the deliberations which will determine Title III policies. I presume that this is the reason Congress required National and State level advisory councils.

One of the fundamental precepts of educational administrative practice is that concerned groups must be involved in the decision-making process. When we act unilaterally, when we fail to touch the sensitive bases, when we cease to seek feedback from concerned and influential sources, we invite difficulties in executing vital school programs. Advisory councils, wisely utilized, will help us to steer a proper course that will enhance understanding and minimize conflict and disorder.

Advisory councils, however, must not encroach upon the legal responsibilities of State boards of education, but must concentrate instead upon the task of giving advice to those legally responsible for Title III decisions. This advisory function should not be considered unimportant because it involves advice concerning decisions to be made rather than actual decision-making. When a State board of education and a Chief State School Officer appoint a body of busy, prestigious persons to offer the benefits of their combined wisdom, the State officials are certainly obligated to place great weight upon the recommendations they receive. In fact, the circumstances should be most unusual, and fully justified, when a State board of education or its executive officer acts contrary to the consensus of its advisory body.

Within the limits of my experience, I have seen advisory bodies of virtually no value or significance become involved in trivia. In fact, I have served on a few such councils.

It seems to me that advisory councils will be what we make of them. Title III advisory councils will function on a high level if we appoint capable people, provide adequate and effective staff support, and place considerable weight upon the advice the council offers. To do otherwise is to be insincere in calling upon the valuable time of busy people who accept such assignments.

Most of the detail in providing leadership for Title III program priorities, in assisting in project proposal review work, and in evaluation and follow-through activities should be carried out by the SEA staff responsible for Title III programs. The advisory council, however, should be involved in weighing and deliberating activities that precede actual decision-making. A capable, well balanced and representative council will sharpen staff work and help keep priorities and values in balance.

Roles of staff, advisory councils, Chief State School Officers, and State boards of education need to be clearly defined. Such definitions will place heavy emphasis upon the processes of deliberation, weighing of priorities, and rendering of advice concerning decisions to be made. This is a key role in the administration of Title III which can be played by a representative, capable, and dedicated council. With such assistance, Title III programs in the SEA will be more productive. To this end, the function of the advisory council should not be considered as "only advisory," but as "vitally and indispensably advisory."

THE STATE ADVISORY COUNCIL

An Emerging Role

Arnold Gallegas
Chairman, Washington State ESEA Title III Advisory Council

Successful statewide educational improvement under ESEA Title III requires a positive cooperative enterprise among advisory council members and individuals holding statewide educational responsibilities. This relationship, however, should be free from hierarchical constraints that stifle independent thought and reduce council action to mere ritualistic formalities carried out to comply with Federal law.

Individuals who devote their time and effort to advisory council activites demonstrate their commitment to the improvement of learning opportunities for youth and deserve to have their views and ideas weighed carefully. There is no question that mutual respect and shared responsibilities among advisory council members, State department employees, Chief State School Officers and State board of education members are key factors for the development and implementation of sound Statewide educational planning.

Advisory councils can make significant contributions to the over-all impact of Title III in various ways. These include:

1. Drawing upon the "know-how" and experience of those sources in our society most capable of identifying educational needs and of recognizing valid and viable approaches for meeting these needs. It is unlikely that positive and effective change will result from educators conferring with other educators. Chief State School Officers and State boards of education must have input from representatives of ghetto and rural communities, private industry, legislatures, private and public school and institutions of higher education if Title III is to make a relevant contribution to our society. Advisory councils can provide this input, by including representatives of these segments as advisory council members, or by inviting these representatives to present their ideas in open session to council members and interested educators.

Either way, the advisory council can become a forum for concerned citizens wishing to identify problems and to share ideas for possible solutions.

2. Promoting cooperative efforts (e.g., regional laboratories and Title III, legislatures, etc.) to provide a greater concentration of effort in specific areas of need and mutual concern. Such efforts could fill the gap now experienced under annual fiscal year funding procedures and provide the much needed financial continuity necessary for project success.

There are few Title III project directors today who haven't suffered the trauma of having to "tentatively" hire staff during the crucial months of July, August and September, and then, when funded in late summer or early autumn, having to try to complete twelve months' work in eight. Little wonder that many Title III projects fall short of their promises.

Biennium funding would appear to be an answer, but if such is not forthcoming from the Federal Government, then other alternatives should be seriously considered.

A solution which might resolve this problem in some cases and, at the same time, prevent costly duplication of effort is cooperative involvement with other local, State, and Federal agencies.

An example in the State of Washington is a cooperative effort to develop innovative approaches to resolving teacher turnover, teacher shortage, and teacher training problems in small high schools. This effort involves a Title III project, the Small Schools Program of the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory in Portland, Oregon, and a Title IV project in vocational education at Washington State University. This tie-in has provided Title III project staff with continuation funding and has given this project a far greater geographic impact throughout the Northwest. While Title III funds would have limited project activity to the State of Washington, the use of laboratory funds has allowed schools in Montana, Idaho, Oregon and Alaska to share in the results of project developments.

This is but one example. What other possibilities might there exist in cooperative efforts with State legislatures, model cities, and/or other Federal programs? Advisory councils should loo for such possibilities.

3. Collecting and collating extant data on efforts directed at meeting relevant needs throughout the United States. In this way, councils can give districts a headstart in meeting their needs. Statewide dissemination of such data to districts looking for ways to improve learning opportunities promotes better planning, saves money and increases the probabilities of success.

In this day of instant communication and data retrieval, project planning and development need not be carried out in isolation or by trial and error. The amount of available data which could be translated into the development of effective and efficient learning opportunities staggers the imagination. Data on learning problems, learning opportunities, learner characteristics, environmental conditions, etc. are all available, but unfortunately, many of us ignore or automatically reject such data. Advisory councils should see to it that project planners seek out these data and apply them in a relevant manner.

4. Establishing concurrent evaluative procedures for on-going Title III projects that provide State Departments with data that can be utilized for adjustive and corrective measures to guarantee the effectiveness of Title III. These data along with newly recommended and/or implemented efforts by both the advisory councils and the State departments of education can be provided to the President's National Advisory Council. This cooperative reporting of State Title III involvements would indicate to the National Council which recommendations were being implemented.

Because of a relatively advantageous geographic location and familiarity, advisory councils can truly participate in meaningful on-site evaluations. These visitations, along with reports from trained evaluators, can play a significant role in continuation funding, dissemination, and recommendations for the adoption of proven practices by other districts. Recommendations from a panel of experts may be a major factor in an initial funding period, but, thereafter, first-hand knowledge of project developments could provide important input for decision-making.

Obviously, any new structure that dilutes or fragments the authority or responsibilities of an established organization will lessen its chances for success. Advisory councils should in no way assume responsibilities or attempt to implement procedures without State agency approval. The council's role is, as its name implies, strictly "advisory." Whether its recommendations are heeded will depend on the working relationships established early in this transition period.

"Minority reports" have attained a new and important status in our society. If considered vital, reports to the National Advisory Council should include differing points of view with whatever supportive evidence there is available. For obvious reasons, the inviolability of communication between a state advisory council and the National Council must be guaranteed.

Much has been said about assessing educational needs. It is hoped that every state will make an honest effort at such an assessment. Not that the broadly identified categories will markedly differ, but the conditions under which these needs manifest themselves will, and it behooves each State to fully understand all aspects of these identified educational deficiencies. It is these carefully scrutinized areas of need that will be the basis for program development, and the advisory council has a role to play in ensuring their fulfillment.

If, for example, voluntary efforts are not forthcoming under Title III to meet these needs, the advisory council is in a unique position to make direct appeals for action without the shackles of political constraints.

But any appeal for change is doomed to failure if certain basic principles for initiating change go unheeded. I will mention a few taken from a publication entitled Concepts for Social Change:

1. Resistance will be less if administrators, teachers, board members, and community leaders feel that the project is their own -- not one devised and operated by outsiders.

2. Resistance will be less if participants see the change as reducing rather than increasing their present burdens.

3. Resistance will be less if the program offers the kind of new experience which interests participants.

4. Resistance will be less if participants have joined in diagnostic efforts leading them to agree on the basic problem and to feel its importance.

5. Resistance will be reduced if it is recognized that innovations are likely to be misunderstood and misinterpreted, and if provision is made for feedback of perceptions of the project and for further clarification as needed.

6. Resistance will be reduced if the project is kept open to revision and reconsideration if experience indicates that changes would be desirable.

Relationships with State Title III personnel, advisory councils and State departments of education should support these principles. Educational change requires more than supportive legislation.

In considering the contributions Title III should make to education now and in the future, advisory council members must have a feel for the pulse of change that has been flowing through our educational institutions over the past decade, and must realistically assess the impact of educational technology, present and future.

There is no question that we are entering a new era in education where many traditional patterns of teacher-student interaction are changing. But we should plan carefully lest we tie ourselves to costly "innovative" white elephants (e.g., language laboratories, closed circuit T.V.) that die a lonely, slow death amidst a whirr of flashing lights, buzzers, and drive wheels for lack of keepers to provide them with something to say and learners willing to listen.

STATE PLAN HIGHLIGHTS

Assessment of Needs and Long-Range Planning

O. Ray Warner
Chief, State Plans Branch
Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers
U. S. Office of Education

One of the provisions of the ESEA Title III legislation is that a State Plan must set forth a strategy for assessing educational needs in a State and determining how Title III will be used in meeting such needs. The Senate report on Title III states, "It is expected that the States will conduct surveys involving objective criteria and measurements in order to ascertain the educational needs of persons within the State."

An analysis of the 33 State Plans that have been approved to this date, and 7 pending approval within the next few days, reveals that State departments of education are utilizing a number of different approaches to assess the needs of children within the schools of the State.

There are 23 States where the needs assessment will be conducted by the SEA staff, and one State where assessment will be contracted to a non-profit outside educational agency. In two States, needs assessment will be contracted to a private profit-making educational agency. In 14 States, the State department of education will contract part of the study to some outside agency and the department will conduct part of the study.

In those States where needs assessment has been contracted to another agency, the basic strategy for assessment is to be developed and carried out by that agency. Of course, the State department of education will provide data that is available to these agencies, but the contracting agency will assemble and interpret the data for the State.

The strategies to be used by the State department of education can be grouped into three categories. The first type of strategy is one which is almost totally dependent upon analyzing existing data available to the State department of education. Those State agencies using this approach are depending upon previous studies that have been conducted in the State including dropout studies, local district surveys, and other studies made by specially appointed commissions and task forces. Included in this strategy is the compilation of all types of demographic information such as test scores, census reports, school accreditation reports, and other socio-economic data.

The second approach is one where the State is almost starting from "scratch" and is designing a strategy which does not depend upon previous studies or other previously collected socio-economic data. These States are designing instruments and procedures to collect the data they feel is needed to assess accurately current "learner" needs. If other demographic or socio-economic data is needed when they have concluded the study, this additional information will be included.

The final strategy is designed to utilize fully the first two approaches and is designed to fit into an overall "master plan" for assessing learner needs in the State. In these States, the units in the State department of education responsible for research and evaluation will be greatly involved in developing the total design for assessing needs. A majority of the States are using this approach to needs assessment. In these States, the strategy includes several dimensions: the collection and analysis of information relating to pupil performance, determination of the perceptions of various groups within the state, assessment of the organizational structure of schools, evaluation of various school functions and practices, and collection and analysis of relevant socio-economic data.

Only seven of the approved State Plans indicate that the educational needs of the State are fairly well known.

One of the larger problems State departments of education face in these assessments of educational needs is determining the validity and reliability of data collected. Some of the better-designed State Plans have given consideration to this problem. In these states, the Title III staff will work with research and evaluation personnel of the State department of education and the State Advisory Council in an intensive effort to determine the accuracy of information and to make sure that the designated educational need is an accurate expression of existing conditions.

Four basic steps are involved in an adequate needs assessment: testing for validity, establishing criticality, determining the extent of needs, and defining the role of Title III in meeting those needs. To test for validity, the staff must determine whether the need is accurately defined within a given environment and whether the need, as expressed, is an adequately documented critical need or merely a symptom of some peripheral related problem. To establish criticality, the staff must develop methods and procedures to weigh information designating needs for the purpose of determing whether those needs are truly considered to be the critical learner-oriented educational needs in the State. To determine the extent of needs, the staff must use valid data to assess the extent to which a given need is truly present in various regions within the state.

The State Plan provisions which describe the role of Title III make it quite clear that the aim of this legislation is to design and demonstrate creative solutions to major educational problems which affect the several States and the Nation, rather than attempting to provide direct aid for services to meet all educational needs of students on a large scale basis.

In the State Plans we have reviewed to date, we find some conscientious, imaginative efforts to assess and determine the critical educational needs of students in the States. As might be expected, however, we detect in a few State Plans a very negative attitude toward assessment even when superficial attention is paid to it. In general, we have found often a very perfunctory awareness of the kind of thinking, planning, organization, personnel, and time needed for a comprehensive objective assessment of educational needs. This lack manifests itself in the tendency of State Plan writers to assume that they already know what needs to be done in a State, even though the State Plans provide little evidence that this is the case. This is understandable when such writers have extensive experience in education in a State, particularly in a State where a wide variety of surveys have been conducted in the recent past.

Mindful of legislative intent, however, very complete assessment of needs will be required. Congress has said in effect that previously conducted uncoorinated surveys will not suffice. Time and time again we see repeated in the Senate and House conference reports, and finally in the Act itself, the idea that needs are to be assessed in direct relation to the Title III program. Or at the very least, the relationship between a needs assessment which was done for other purposes and the Title III program should be delineated with great care.

The State Plans Branch of the Office of Education has approved some State Plans in which the strategy for needs assessment was not so strong as it should have been. We have done so because these are the first State Plans for Title III, but we will probably not be permitted such latitude in our consideration of State Plans for FY '70. Those State Plans will have to provide objective data about learner needs, and they will have to describe the manner in which needs were assessed.

We, therefore, encourage you to earmark appropriate amounts of your administrative funds to recruit additional staff members if necessary to accomplish this important task.

For the balance of FY '69, we want to cooperate with you and assist you in any way possible and appropriate in assessing needs and developing FY '70 Plans. We believe that in those States where the focal point of needs assessment is the learner rather than the number of school buses, the physical plant, or other necessary but less important considerations significant and meaningful results will emerge.

In my opinion, the long-range plans and the role Title III will play in improving education in each State will depend upon the adequacy of needs assessment, the determination of critical educational needs, and the use of Title III funds to demonstrate creative and exemplary approaches to meeting these needs.

Those of you who have been involved in writing ESEA Title III State Plans and who are also familiar with State Plans under NDEA, the Vocational Education Act, and Title II of ESEA are aware of the tremendous differences between the specific requirements of Title III and the requirements for other State Plans. The specific legislative requirements for Title III are far more numerous than the requirements for any other piece of Federal education legislation.

For these reasons, the preparation of Regulations and Guidelines, and the approval of State Plans have taken far more time than we had anticipated. In spite of the amount of time the process has taken or perhaps because of it, I can assure you that we share your concern for developing strong, effective State Plans that will truly make Title III the positive force for the creative improvement of education that it can be.

STATE PLAN HIGHLIGHTS

Evaluation and Dissemination

Richard R. Goulet
Chief, Program Dissemination Section
Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers
U. S. Office of Education

A major responsibility of the States under the Title III program is the evaluation and reporting of the effectiveness of individual projects as demonstration programs, and of the statewide impact of the Title III program as a whole. Another responsibility is designing and carrying out dissemination activities. Here is a brief overview, based on a comparative analysis of these provisions in the 40 State Plans which are either approved or nearing approval.

EVALUATION

The evaluation designs presented in the State Plans vary greatly both in scope and in the degree to which they are presently operable. This is easily understandable since the majority of the 40 Plans have merely outlined their designs for developing comprehensive evaluation strategies during fiscal year 1969. Only about 10 States appear to have advanced toward the actual implementation of concrete evaluation designs.

For purposes of analysis, we are using the CIPP Evaluation Model. Though a State plan may not have made specific reference to this model, any design for systematic on-going evaluation would normally contain these elements.

CIPP Evaluation Model

CONTEXT - Define operation context.
Identify and assess needs in context.
Identify and delineate problems underlying needs.

INPUT - Identify and assess system capabilities, available input strategies, and designs for implementing strategies.

PROCESS - Identify or predict defects in procedural design or its implementation.

PRODUCT - Relate outcome information to objectives and to context, input, and process information.

Many States indicate that they will relate their assessed needs, Title III goals, and long-term strategy to their evaluation efforts, but only five States have outlined procedures for actual context evaluation. Only 6 States provide for extensive input evaluation, while 10 States provide for fairly comprehensive process evaluation.

For example, in one State, systematic collection of data will be undertaken to reflect the progress made toward the procedural goals of each project, the difficulties encountered by each project, and the techniques used to overcome these difficulties. Though all plans indicate that evaluation is a continuous process, most of them limit evaluation to the evaluation of project outcomes or products.

Not many States specifically provide for the evaluation of Title III as a demonstration program, and only a few indicate how they will collect information about the effectiveness of Title III projects in relation to the State as a whole. These few report that they will use their State Title III objectives in developing criteria for measuring the effectiveness of the program on a statewide basis.

Most States report methods for gathering objective information on individual project effectiveness in the area served by the project. To collect this data, a few States will use systems analyses, such as cost effectiveness, quality control, cost analysis, and PPBS.

All States will provide evaluation services to local projects, and 25 States intend to do so quite extensively. All but two States will provide training for local evaluators, but only one mentions training in evaluation for the State educational agency staff itself. Nineteen States will provide extensive assistance to the local educational agency in its preparation of project proposals, especially in the area of evaluation design, while 18 States will provide some assistance, and three do not mention assistance in this area.

Though all States will use the evaluation criteria developed by the Office of Education to review project proposals, most States indicate that these criteria will be modified during FY 1969.

The role of the State advisory councils in the approval process falls into two categories: in 23 States, the State advisory council will read each proposal and then recommend action, while in 17 States, the State advisory council will review summaries of the projects along with the recommendations of other reviewers, and then recommend action.

The State advisory council will be assisted by State educational agency personnel in all States in varying degrees. Different State units will have the responsibility for helping the State advisory council in its evaluation activities; for example, this will be a task of the Research Division in one State, and the Educational Planning Office in another State. Some Plans make provisions for specific additional assistance. For example, some States will provide evaluation consultants and some States will provide funds for contracting the services of other organizations. One State will provide an executive secretary and a recording secretary for the advisory council in addition to the assistance given by the State Title III Coordinator and his staff; in two States, the Title III Coordinator will serve as the executive secretary of the Council.

Provisions for on-site evaluation of projects differ in some respects, but most States--31 of the 40-- plan to make on-site evaluations at least once a year, with more being made when necessary. Seven States plan two visits a year, and two States plan three visits a year. In most cases, the on-site evaluation will be conducted for the purpose of collecting information needed to make decisions on the continuation of the project, or to report the effectiveness of the project to the National Advisory Council.

To conduct these evaluation, 28 States will use specified teams of evaluators. In 12 States, evaluation will be conducted by consultants, members of the advisory council, or State educational agency staff members visiting the projects at various intervals. All States will involve the project staff in the evaluation, and two States will involve additional people, such as school personnel and parents.

Only three States provide for the participation of the local project staff in planning and conducting the on-site evaluation, or in reviewing the results, but all States provide for feedback of information to the local project following the on-site evaluation.

Only three States indicate that they will provide orientation and training for persons conducting the on-site evaluations.

In developing the evaluation report for the National Advisory Council, States will summarize and consolidate a number of reports, such as reports of on-site visits by SEA staff and council members, and data analysis reports made by the State agency staff.

DISSEMINATION

Provisions for dissemination in the 40 State Plans which are either approved or tentatively approved vary substantially in design and methodology. However, two main patterns stand out which are in direct relation to the State agency's concept of dissemination. States which view dissemination as an integral part of educational planning, development, and operation have presented fairly complex dissemination strategies that are closely linked with evaluation, while those States which view dissemination as merely "getting-the-word-out" emphasize primarily the public information function.

Only 10 of the 40 Plans reviewed stress the necessity for a strong evaluation/dissemination linkage for an effective dissemination design. Each of these 10 Plans provides for a well-organized dissemination component or center as an integral part of the State agency structure for administering Title III.

Though a relationship between evaluation and dissemination is suggested in most State Plans, very few describe how such a linkage should be established.

Those State Plans which differentiated between public information and program dissemination--about 20 out of the 40 reviewed--have much stronger designs and procedures than those which do not separate these areas. The majority of these 20 Plans outline different approaches for meeting the requirements of program dissemination and public information.

On one hand, they provide for a close working relationship with the existing public information unit of the State educational agency in order to promote a broad understanding of Title III projects and other innovative programs in the State.

On the other hand, these Plans view program dissemination as the primary function of a separate Title III dissemination center or component. However, as I mentioned earlier, only about 10 States have clearly outlined the function of such a center. A dissemination center would analyze evaluation data, produce specialized publications, films, and other materials for particular professional audiences, and provide consultant and training services to local educational agencies. It could provide, as suggested in a few Plans, for the establishment of a linkage of Title III projects through regular newsletters and special bulletins. These centers also will plan and conduct special programs and conferences, including regional and statewide seminars on research and innovation, "like-program" workshops, and in-depth seminars with local school district personnel.

It is interesting to note that only three States have made provisions for an information storage and retrieval system to serve project directors and other educators. Though other States are probably planning these systems, they are mentioned in only these three instances.

Proposed staffing to implement the dissemination functions varies with each State, though the mode is to utilize one full-time professional person. However, some plans provide for dissemination teams of three or four specialists. Educational requirements range from the bachelor's degree to the doctorate; all require a communications background, but only about one half of the 40 Plans reviewed require experience in teaching or other fields of education.

A few States intend to contract for most dissemination efforts, and a handful will rely on consultants, as they are needed.

Those State Plans which clearly outline their dissemination responsibilities seem to provide for more realistic staffing, while those which are vague in design and methodology assume that one information specialist will be sufficient. About 5 of the 40 Plans proposed to carry out the entire dissemination function through the State agency's existing public information office.

Provisions for promoting the adoption and adaptation of promising projects are of course, directly related to the dissemination provisions. These provisions are generally as strong or as weak as the dissemination design, itself. Procedures for promoting adoption include providing for statewide newsletters, special publications, use of videotapes, TV and radio, seminars, workshops, organized visitation programs, and visiting specialists.

In conclusion, again I emphasize that the majority of the evaluation and dissemination designs in the State Plans are skeletal, and understandably so, given the short period of time which the State educational agencies had available to assume the administrative responsibilities for ESEA Title III in fiscal year 1969.

Nevertheless, however basic these provisions may be, they do show the extent to which individual States intend to further plan, develop, and strengthen their programs during the present fiscal year.

INNOVATION: FACT AND FICTION

Louis J. Rubin
Director, Center for Coordinated Education
University of California
Santa Barbara

The Mythology of Innovation

In a sociological sense, a myth is a group belief that is born of wish rather than of an understanding of the way things are. The movement to reform public education, with its accompanying exhortation of newness and change, has reached the point where myth and counterfeit assumptions may well dissipate the human energy and material resources going toward the improvement of the school.

Much of benefit has occurred since the movement's inception. There has been a basic re-examination of the ways in which the schoolhouse is shaped, both locally and nationally, by human ambition and by the social turbulence of our times. Fine minds have brought their sharpest talents to bear upon the problems of instructing the young. Teaching ideas have been reappraised and updated. A new technology has made change feasible in ways which were not possible before. Now, as domestic and foreign conflicts place the education of the child in new social perspective, the emerging concept of schooling is a high celebration of what human enterprise can accomplish.

A few years back, the schools were said to be walking the edge of error because of their old-fashioned ways. The tides have so reversed (and the myths of innovation are so seductive) that now, in many instances they may be equally guilty of a reckless fascination with change. With the generation of long overdue action, surfeit follows close upon sufficiency. It is not that innovation in itself is undesirable. Indeed, the quest for something new, and better, must be taken far beyond our present strivings. But there must be stability amid change. Innovation, in short, must be a rational act. It is necessary to know what is now wrong before it can be determined whether something new is better, or even useful. The utility of an innovation must be measured against the particular situation, its probable benefit must be balanced against its probable cost, and the decision to nurture it from inception to maturity must be made with prudence.

Many myths about innovation build from the notion that change is necessarily for the good. But frenetic activity is not the same as authentic improvement. Neither are the contrived use of gimmicks, the invention of new labels for old methods, nor the opportunistic use of shoddy solutions. There may be no harm, or even a slight advantage, in providing a disadvantaged child with flute lessons, but it probably is not the best way to overcome his cultural impoverishment. The point of innovation is not that something be different but that it be better. Thus, innovation must be ordered by informed judgment. It must reflect a rational choice among alternatives and its advantages must clearly outweigh its disadvantages. It is when we fail to distinguish what is true from what is mythical that we are likely to overlook the indispensable conditions of innovation.

Innovation Failure

For the past five years at the Center for Coordinated Education, we have experimented with the promotion of innovation in the public school. During this period we have directed our attention to problems of motivation and incentive, resistance to change, the diagnosis of school weaknesses, and the comparison of improvement alternatives. As a result of this work we have reached a number of conclusions about the innovation process.

The faulty introduction of an innovation creates great difficulty. For example, if a new instructional method or a new curriculum (perhaps a new science program) is introduced carelessly, much is lost. When teachers do not understand the intent of the program, when they lack sophistication regarding its meaning and use, or when they are uncertain as to its merit, the potential of the innovation is distilled and sometimes destroyed. Innovation overload often gives rise to faulty introduction tactics. A school can deal with only a limited number of changes at a time, particularly when the nature of the changes produce stress and insecurity. Whatever its intrinsic merit, an innovation is no better than the treatment it receives in the hands of the teacher. Unfortunately, the use of pilot tests, admittedly a useful technique for determining the practicality of alternatives, frequently serves as an excuse to launch a dozen innovations simultaneously in the same school.

The rational introduction of an innovation bears heavily upon its ultimate survival and success. When a useful innovation is mishandled, not only does its promise go unrealized but the resulting chaos may leave the school in worse condition than it was before. Adequate teacher preparation in advance of the deed is perhaps the single most important step in a good introduction process. Few innovations are perfected at their inception; most are likely to undergo a considerable period of refinement and adaptation in a particular situation, ultimately resulting in something rather different from the original product. Since the user of an innovation invariably molds it with the force of his own personality, the teacher may alter the innovation for better or for worse. Teachers meet an innovation with varying degrees of receptivity and finesse, and as a result, adaptation rather than wholesale adoption is most likely to occur. Every innovation in learning and instruction, involving specific behavior on the teacher's part, then, is personalized when it is put into practice. The teacher acts as an interpreter, much as the musical performer interprets the composer. If the innovation requires prescribed teacher action, it must be introduced teacher by teacher so that the desired outcomes and the means for their achievement are understood.

Much has been said in the literature on innovation regarding the human resistance which stems from an affection for the old and a fear of the new. Experience leads me to believe that these concerns are grossly exaggerated. Most teachers appear to have a profound interest in improved performance and to delight in the stimulation of new ideas. The importance of pleasurable experimentation with new ideas has been underestimated, for the introduction of a new practice frequently results in what might be termed "inadvertent" innovation. Successful innovations are compounded by a combination of hypermotivation, hyperactivity, skill, and luck. Once the practitioner begins to "play" with it, an innovation may take on a new elegance. In this regard, a distinction should be made between a primary innovation which is probably external in origin and a secondary innovation which usually originates internally. A primary innovation, e.g., computer-assisted instruction,is one which constitutes an invention without precedent. A secondary innovation, on the other hand, is a refinement of something that already exists. As a result of imaginative work in the classroom teachers are very often able to make secondary innovations which improve upon the primary innovation. Surprisingly, improvements of this sort often stem from faulty perception. The teacher erroneously assumes that the innovation has capabilities not claimed by the original designer, or imputes unintended qualities to it and in blissful ignorance achieves original and worth-while results. Serendipity of this sort is not unlike Columbus' finding of the Americas while seeking the Orient, or Fleming's accidental discovery of penicillin.

Unfortunately, those who must implement it are not always so receptive to an innovation. Much innovative failure is situational--the result of impediments built into the receiving environment. An externally imposed innovation, for example, may fail because the morale of the school staff is poor. The shift to a nongraded school may be chaotic because the school administration is inept. A new mathematics curriculum may be deprecated because its worth is measured against conventional expectations associated with the old program. An excellent science curriculum may fail because the teachers are opposed to inductive learning.

Failure may also occur if an innovation is not sustained by support and tolerance through its introductory phase. Instant innovation is a rare happening. Indeed, the initial consequences may create seemingly overwhelming problems. In England, nationalized medical service, for example, gave rise to a vast number of problems shortly after its introduction. With time, most of these problems were overcome and its success became demonstrable. It suffices to say that, like all wise and considered judgments, the merit of an educational innovation cannot be discerned by cursory inspection. It must be observed and weighed carefully over the course of time.

Dissemination

While the dissemination or spread of information about new practices must take place in one way or another as a prerequisite to the diffusion of innovations, it is questionable whether it need occupy our attention to the extent it has. Dissemination is not that difficult; moreover, it seems clear that diffusion tactics should differ for primary and secondary kinds of innovations. The dissemination of new commercial curricula like those produced by book publishers and their affiliates, for example, is a highly refined marketing process with a method and mystique of its own. Dissemination of this sort is chiefly a matter of advertising, testimonials by prestigious advocates, demonstrations of success, and similar promotional devices. If business continues its interest in the educational market, as it is most likely to do, the schoolman will not need to concern himself with the dissemination of primary innovations. Industry will find them and sell them. Under these conditions it is highly improbable that a successful instructional innovation will escape the attention of most schools.

While the dissemination of secondary innovations--improved variations of a primary innovation--is of a very different sort, it similarly does not seem to be cause for undue agitation. When a school accomplishes a useful change, its success may result from the process used to carry out the alteration, it may be attributable to uncommon circumstances within the school, or it may reflect the quality of the innovation itself. A seemingly extraneous factor like teacher militancy, for example, may create pressures which either encourage or discourage the faculty's desire to innovate. Even when an innovation has widespread usefulness, each school must engage in its own introduction process, adapting the procedure to the particular conditions which prevail. While the leadership of a school system must be continually aware of a better educational practice and must champion its cause, it is what the teacher takes to be important that governs the affairs of the classroom. Apart from the dispersion of information about new practices, the predominant value of dissemination activity seems to lie in its capacity to shatter complacency and promote dissatisfaction and the desire to change; to motivate individuals to lose, in short, the bonds of fettering convention. The communication media of the education profession are excellent. Through professional journals, association newsletters, commercial advertising, professional meetings, and even the Sunday supplements, most people who have a desire to know do know what is going on in the field. Success, like folly, will out, and a vast audience stands ready to behold our miracles as well as our mistakes. At the moment, our need seems to be more for a better gospel than for more missionaries to spread it. For these reasons, I am inclined to argue that innovative schools would do well to avoid an excessive preoccupation with dissemination. And, of even greater importance, it seems to me that when schools do publicize their innovations, they should make a point of communicating failures as well as successes, and the particular events which contributed to success or failure. We learn from errors--our own as well as others--and even a successful venture generally can be improved the second time around. Innovative behavior necessarily involves the risk of failure. When we learn from it, however, failure can be exceedingly valuable.

Installation of Innovations

One of our more interesting endeavors at the Center for Coordinated Education has been to analyze resistance to change and to attempt to predict factors which reduce a school's ability to innovate successfully. In general, for example, the number of years a particular school has existed correlates negatively with its tendency to innovate. Young teachers are somewhat more accepting of innovations than their more experienced peers. The presence of crisis, whether in society as a whole, the educational establishment, or in a school, usually increases willingness to innovate. Contrary to the findings of the rural sociologists, late adopters are more likely to use innovations successfully and to integrate them with the permanent program than are early adopters. Late adopters also tend to introduce changes more quickly and effectively than early adopters.

Although innovation in the school tends to be a collective decision rather than an individual one, a particular individual usually spearheads the innovative movement. In most instances, that individual is the school principal.

The conclusions described here are an integral part of the change process as practiced by the Center for Coordinated Education. The process requires three sets of operations, each containing a number of discrete steps. I have termed these operations analysis, strategy selection, and installation.

Analysis

The preliminary analysis serves several important functions. First, it provides information by which the innovation can be related to the improvement of the school. Second, it provides some help in determining which of the available innovations is most appropriate to the particular school's situation. Third, it yields clues which are important in selecting a strategy for implementing the change. The analysis involves five steps: (1) identifying a weakness, (2) analyzing the causal factors, (3) comparing alternative correctives, (4) selecting the best corrective, and (5) identifying potential mechanisms for implementing the change.

The first of the four steps, diagnosing a weakness, is the most difficult. What a school staff may perceive to be a weakness depends upon its value system, its commitment and its sense of purpose. Frequently, the job expectations of the individual teacher conflict with community expectations or the organizational goals of the school. For example, a given teacher may value the production of a creative, self-directive child, while the community may wish to produce a child who manifests obedience and self-control. Beliefs regarding the proper instruction of the young vary considerably. Almost any activity may appear to work reasonably well if there is enough reinforcement, and it is often exceedingly hard to persuade a faculty that its aspirations are shortsighted, or that its results are unimpressive.

Strategy Selection

The selection of an installing strategy is based upon information derived from the analysis operation. It may be summarized by three questions:

1. What kind of innovation is to be installed?
2. Who will engineer the installation?
3. How may the receiving environment be prepared for its inception?

All innovations cannot be introduced in the same way. When one wishes to introduce an innovation in subject matter, one plays a different game than when one seeks to change a teaching method. Similarly, alterations in the physical arrangements of the school or pupil grouping call for different tactics. Strategies for installing an innovation frequently must vary with the style and organizational position of the person engineering the change. Some schools are subject to strong political influence from the community; others are not. Some teaching staffs are cohesive and manifest considerable group solidarity; others defer to the individuality and autonomy of each staff member.

The function of strategy selection is to permit the changemaster to play his cards as well as he can. The more evidence he has gathered from the previous analysis, the better. Differences among faculties are very great. The decision to use a direct ("hard sell") approach, as opposed to an indirect ("soft sell") approach, for example, hangs on the nature of the innovation, the talents of the changemaster, and the perceived idiosyncrasies of each situation. A facet of our current work is an attempt to classify elementary school staffs as a group on a scale of receptivity to innovation. Although there are yet unsolved difficulties in this type of classification, there seems to be little doubt that each school staff has a kind of collective personality and, as a group, responds to different influence tactics.

Change will occur in the public school whether or not deliberate interventionist tactics are employed. However, to the extent that school leaders seek to enhance the rate and quality of change, the careful choice of strategy is important. As we learn more about resistance to change and the comparative strengths of different methods of influence, the task will become simpler.

Installation

The installation activity follows the two previous operations. There are six steps:

1. Analysis of the innovation's requirements
   a. training
   b. materials
   c. integration with the existing program

2. Initiation of the influence strategy
   a. inducing dissatisfaction
   b. clarifying the reasons for change

3. Establishment of the prerequisite conditions

4. Installation of the innovation

5. Provision of transitional support

6. Integration with the permanent system

The installation phase consists of a sequence of steps leading to the adaptation of the innovation to the school's situation and, ultimately, to its permanent integration with the system. It is important to note, again, that the installation of an innovation does not begin until (a) a specific weakness has been identified, (b) the problem has been analyzed, (c) alternate solutions have been considered, and (d) a rational examination of the innovation's requirements has occurred.

The time given to each step in the installation process varies with the nature of the innovation and the characteristics of the situation. The steps are based upon the following assumptions:

1. The staff must understand the innovation, its requirements, and its relation to the school's objectives.
2. The benefits of the innovation must be clear.
3. Specific strategies must be used to induce the staff to accept the innovation, to prevent transitional failure, and to integrate the innovation with the total instructional program.

Conclusion

Innovative activity cannot be an isolated pursuit or an end in itself. Rather, it must be part of a systematic program of improvement. The problems of the typical school cannot be redressed by a unilateral attack. More often than not, the success and value of a new procedure depends on a concomitant effort to improve other elements in the instructional setting. Failure to make these related alterations may dissipate and even negate the effect of the innovation.

Unless there is a rigorous attempt to analyze pervasive problems and improve deficiencies, the innovations that are most needed are not likely to emerge. The impulse to innovate must stem from the particular school's appraisal of its own condition, rather than from the lure of showpieces in the market place. Profitable utilization of any innovation requires that those whose behavior will be affected perceive the weaknesses which it promises to strengthen and understand the conditions which qualify its wise use, including the personal adjustments which must be made in order to attain results which will justify its continuation.

The idea that any innovation will work a revolution in the educational system is largely specious. Again and again throughout history men have assumed that some new kind of organization, technique, or inspired vision would mark a wondrous new era for mankind. They have succumbed to virtually any myth that would relieve their anxiety. Changes, particularly those in enduring institutions like the school, are more likely to come about little by little through the prosaic and laborious process of invention which involves trial and error, experimental testing, adaptation, and gradual adoption. Neither radio nor television, technology nor teaching machine has yet justified the prediction that schooling could be revolutionized in a single stroke. On the contrary, evidence suggests that a persistent devotion to continued improvement would represent the most desirable revolution in the schools. Since, like society as a whole, the school can never be perfected, the quest for significant reform is a goal more lasting and more meaningful than the mere substitution of something new for something old.

Most innovation is a matter of creative synthesis, rather than inspired vision. Because a useful innovation must have relevance in the particular school, that school is the most logical place from whence to seek what I have referred to as "creative playing around." Invention is the happy offspring of confident and committed teachers. Toward this end, teachers should be encouraged to trifle elegantly with form and method. Such activity is permanently profitable, for, like beauty, creation is its own excuse for being. Its sweet rewards may lead to addiction--and the evolution of a more useful school whose needs are served by reality, rather than by myth.

EDUCATIONAL CHANGE FROM THE LOCAL LEVEL

Leon Lessinger
Associate Commissioner for Elementary and
Secondary Education
U.S. Office of Education

On January 20, a new American President will stand before an inaugural crowd to speak on issues of importance to the Nation. There is little question that one of those issues will be concerned with needed change in education.

It isn't hard to imagine the President-Elect soon after Election Day selecting some Toquevillian informant to study what Ernest Renan called "the common memories, sacrifices, glories, afflictions and regrets" which the American people hold toward their educational system. The purpose of such a study quite obviously would be to enable the informant to advise the President-Elect on the insights and portents which he perceives.

How easy it is to speculate on the content of his report. How safely we can predict that it will deal with change. We can even hear its major refrain:

> Everywhere in the Nation the word is change: Change in business, in clothes, in science, in religion, in expectations and in temper. The change is abrasive, anxiety-arousing, relentless, and pervasive. People, especially young people, echo the angel Gabriel in Green Pastures, "Everything nailed down is coming loose."

We can feel confident that the need for educational change will be a major concern of the new President, for we are witness to a great irony of history: the Nation which has, when compared to all others, conquered disease, erased starvation, dispensed affluence and educated nearly everybody has generated what M.I.T. philosophy professor Houston Smith calls "the gloomiest depiction of the human condition ever rendered. Never have men known so much, while doubting that it adds up to anything. Never has life been covertly so empty, while overtly so full." With this pervasive gloom and doubt has come a growing loss of faith in the present educational system. More than at any time in our national history, Americans are questioning the very foundations of our traditional approach to formal schooling. More than ever before, they have disturbing doubts about the basic concepts which have shaped the structure and function of our educational institutions.

We here at the President's National Advisory Council Conference on Innovation can still say with Goethe, "Amerika, du hast es besser," but we nevertheless need to ask important questions and to reawaken those who have difficulty asking any questions at all. We must do so, if we hope to retain the better position to which Goethe referred in assessing our Nation.

As a former superintendent with just one day away from that position, I have seven questions to ask about the schools and their products--today's students.

(1) Have all the students attained a basic standard of achievement in the fundamentals?

(2) Do the students find their work in school to be interesting, challenging, and relevant?

(3) Do the students know the many opportunities, in addition to attending college, available to them when they finish school?

(4) Have the schools established a diversity of paths to educational success?

(5) Do students know what is expected of them in a free society?

(6) Have the schools found ways to enlist the energy and idealism of our youth?

(7) Have communities developed a rational process for absorbing our youth into the world outside of school?

In concert, the answers to these questions reveal the most fundamental reason we need to reassess our attempts to foster change in the American school system. The answers indicate that a high proportion of our youth leave school without having developed either the tools of learning, an interest in learning, or an idea of the relationship of learning to careers. From my recent perspective as a local administrator, I would like to discuss a major aspect of these shortcomings. I hope my discussion will suggest why the local school, in spite of increasing Federal and State assistance and intervention, still is encountering difficulty in achieving healthy change.

By the early 1960's, it was evident to many that talent and resources had to be mobilized if we were to achieve satisfactory solutions to pressing educational problems such as those suggested in my seven questions. Given the extent of the crisis and historical practice, it was natural for the efforts of those concerned to coalesce around legislation designed to effect better ways of relating the Federal government to State and local government.

Today, four years after the historic expansion of Federal interest in the schools, the results, as seen from the local level, seem curiously fragmentary. The efforts to bring about change seem to lack a pervasive and sustaining philosophy of change as a constant condition. They also lack a system of sustained logistical support for encouraging and reinforcing the desire and willingness to change. And, finally, they lack a well-developed concept of management. From our present vantage point, these shortcomings create a depressingly inconclusive picture about the ability of our educational system to cope with change.

Moreover, those who pioneered in educational change seemed to lack staying power. Many of those who heard the call to innovate at the local level are not around to shout their success anymore. What happened to the innovators? Too many, I fear, were victims of their own naivete. Too few, I feel, were concerned with the whole scene and, having welcomed comparative isolation from the debilitating frustrations of the gargantuan system, they have since been devoured by it or driven from it.

These nervy pioneers found that the organizational systems within which they functioned were not structured for innovation; rather the systems seemed more ably equipped to prevent it. When they sought help, they found that there was little, if any, to be had. They could not find people or places to supply necessary knowledge or demonstration. They found themselves hedged in by constraints, bound by tradition, frustrated by legal binders, stymied by community apathy. They encountered fear on the part of their personnel, inflexible personnel policies and practices, "Yo-Yo" financing, undeveloped planning capabilities, untrained personnel, a maze of regulations, project gamesmanship and grantsmanship and, most of all, the inexorable demands on time and stamina of operatingan ongoing organization in a time of unrelenting change. Armed only with the innocence of enthusiasm, they discovered the realitites of institutional inertia. Bright people with bright ideas found themselves thwarted and frustrated by the machinery--or lack of it--through which ideas in education are translated into action. Not seeking a way in which to develop new machinery and failing to receive the philosophical, logistical, or managerial support necessary to sustain life in their fragile brainchildren, many of our early innovators allowed the situation to defeat them.

To overcome these roadblocks to change, we must reexamine our educational system. The system is characterized by a dispersion of power and initiative--a condition deeply rooted in public opinion and, if I read the signs correctly, gaining in public support. Perhaps I'll change my views after six months or so in my present position, but I believe that when all is said and done, Federal laws, dollars, and programs, along with State laws, dollars and programs, can't and won't teach children. Only teachers can, will, and must. It is my opinion that everything relating to educational change depends upon increased vitality out where the teachers and the action are--at the local level.

We must now look more carefully at the local level, where several things are becoming increasingly clear. It seems very clear that the largely autonomous and isolated school without strong alliances and logistical support from outside itself simply is not adequate to meet the needs which it faces today.

There are several reasons for this:

(1) The most important problems confronting schools no longer yield to the direction and resource allocations which local school districts alone are able to provide.

(2) In today's complex environment few, if any. local school districts can assure modern purposes such as individualized instruction and compensatory education without outside support.

(3) New organizational arrangements, strategies, and techniques are required between schools, school districts, different governmental levels, higher education, the community, and private enterprise in order for the educational system to achieve the concerted action necessary to fulfill today's needs.

All this suggests that the traditional belief in the power and authority of the local school district to "go it alone," particularly in the cities, no longer commands the confidence it did in times past. People in almost all the "publics," to borrow a term from Lippman, including the professional-educator public, grope for new concepts, new alliances, new arrangements which might help to solve pressing problems.

Some educational leaders are suggesting that the concept which will mature as an adequate response is that represented by the word "community." Obviously, such a term is not used in the dictionary sense of people living in the same place and under the same laws, but rather in the biological sense of a biome or interrelated, organic society. I would like to suggest that what is being called for in this sense of an educational biome can best be described as a community-controlled educational enterprise organized across jurisdictional lines for the pursuit of effective joint action by people who have common purposes.

Of course, such a concept of community is a vague one, but then many ideas are vague. If we look to substance rather than semantics and for broad direction rather than detail, the increasing emergence of new arrangements between institutions, elements of the community, and the private sector is the phenomenon now being described as desirable by those leaders arguing for the concept of "community."

I would suggest that these new organizational patterns are developing for very practical reasons and at least in part to overcome some of the external factors which defeated so many of our early innovators. I believe the patterns now being established are inventions of necessity, designed to permit highly motivated people to solve pressing problems without suffering defeat because of traditional limitations.

Viewed from this standpoint, Title III of ESEA has been a major force in the vanguard of this emerging response to the need for educational change. From its earliest beginnings, the Title III program has stressed the fact that schools could not effectively meet today's problems without planning which involved other groups and agencies in such traditionally non-school areas as transportation, recreation, health care, social services, etc.

Under the aegis of Title III, new relations between metropolitan and school governance have been pioneered. It is just such arrangements in areas formerly thought the sole province of the local schools which seem to hold promise for changes. Recognition of these tendencies should play an important role in determining the future direction of American educational policy.

There are many impediments to the successful development of an educational biome as an instrument of educational change. A great deal more needs to be learned and understood. In the first place, to use an insight of

John Gardner, "....we are poor at problem-solving that requires the revision of social structures, the renewal of institutions, the invention of new arrangements. Not only are problems in this realm exceedingly complex, but in some cases we are rather strongly motivated not to solve them. Solving them would endanger old, familiar ways of doing things."

Secondly, there is a need for an extensive program of public education in the mass-communications, mass-understanding sense. To quote Gardner again, "Social change is a learning process for all concerned. It always requires re-education of large numbers of people to accept new objectives, new values, new procedures."

Our educational system is not centralized, nor monolithic. It can hardly be characterized as either advanced in the technological sense or sophisticated in the managerial. In a very real sense, it could more appropriately be described as a cottage industry of the late nineteenth century than a corporation of the twenties. How else can we account for some of the current beliefs and practices in our schools--beliefs deeply rooted in past practice which have remained relatively unchanged in the face of massive assault from a variety of quarters.

For example, there is the widely held belief that when business practices come into the school system, the quality of education goes out the window. Another holds that the normal curve effectively matches the results of learning and can be used for evaluating learning. And how about that common belief that efficiency is a cult that destroys the fundamental purposes of schools? Or the frequently unacknowledged belief that it is good to collect data but not necessarily important to use it? And the suspicion that "systems" thinking is a scheme for "teacher-proofing" education, replacing people with computers, reducing everything to numbers and valuing costs over people. There is even a widely accepted belief that establishment of performance criteria restricts individual freedom.

These beliefs seem to suggest that among educational personnel the word "management" has less value than it does in other fields where it is not only respectable, but it is actually preferred to the word "administration."

In the face of these obstacles, and many more that could be cited, how can one be constructive? I shall have time to discuss only three suggestions. These are chosen in the belief that the probability is high that they represent important considerations on any list of practical suggestions.

First, we need to work out the meaning of the term "joint action" so that it becomes a practical working term. This means we must recognize that leadership on all three levels--Federal, State, and local--must be vigorous and effective. It also means that we must identify the difficulties in a successful partnership of the Federal, State and local levels and then seek realistic, effective solutions to those difficulties. (At the outset, this will involve describing and implementing the requirements of a sound partnership, including a clear definition of the relationship, arrangements for open communication--including the handling of mutual criticism--and establishment of orderly procedures for negotiation--including negotiation to establish the definition of the relationship and the carrying on of communication and criticism.) To make "joint action" meaningful, we must recognize that in any joint action the adversary and the collegial relationships are complementary, not mutually antagonistic.

Certainly, it also means that we must find more effective ways of relating enterprise to the achievement of educational purposes. In this connection, I find the remarks of Hendrik Gideonse at the American Psychology Association Convention in San Francisco this month most constructive.

He told his listeners that "the application of new management techniques to the educational system will not be easy and does not entail simply a superimposition on the existing structure. Rather, it involves a fundamental reorientation of the organization and structure of American education in terms of the philosophies and principles of accountability, principles not yet fully implemented in American education. And, furthermore, it must be done in a social area where the outputs are much more difficult, though not impossible, to specify."

In closing, he said, "The assessment of output, the incorporation of accountability, and the development of strategies and tactics of resource control constitute the necessary precondition for the effective involvement of industry in the solution of the problems which plague American education today. As management techniques begin to identify the character of the problems confronting schools, then the developmental, inventive, and managerial genius of American industry will find arenas for productive labor and investment in education."

We must recognize the point of diminishing returns in sole reliance on still greater grants of Federal and State monies as the "cure" for educational problems. We must give increasing attention to the role in joint action of the local, private, and voluntary sector, and we must assist in developing this role in at least two ways:

- By helping to develop methods for grass roots coalitions to assume responsibility and resources for reshaping and controlling their own destiny by coping with the problems of jurisdictional barriers; and,

- By helping this action-oriented grouping to go from good ideas in attractive proposals to detailed implementation proposals and actual installation in the schools.

All of this means, of course, that we must go from letterhead consortiums to working consortiums; from exhortation for cooperation to actual means by which those directly affected by a concern can control their own destiny.

Closely allied to the principle of joint action is the need to develop and utilize the concept of educational logistics in the management of change. Logistics has, for many, solely a military connotation. This is most unfortunate, for analysis reveals that the situations which call for logistical support are common to other institutions and expecially to education. I say especially to education because the practice of calling upon a teacher to meet the educational needs of young people armed only with the conventional text, blackboard, chalk, occasional film, school furniture, and a classroom space simply will not accomplish modern educational purposes, no will this practice effectively respond to current and future problems.

Anyone familiar with the task of operating a complex educational organization such as a school district knows that even the task of keeping the classical pattern of teacher-student classrooms supplied with consumable and nonconsumable materials in clean, safe, attractive facilities, and personnel satisfied with good salary and fringe benefits is a difficult management task. If current problems such as involving teachers in policy formulation, student unrest, community militancy, and legal regulations are added to these management tasks, along with educational demands for individualized instruction, flexible scheduling and a whole lot of new conditions, the call for development of educational logistics is timely indeed. We should not overlook another important reason for such a development--the associated problems of scarce resources in a climate of growing taxpayer revolts coupled with demands for the least waste.

"Educational logistics" is a term which S.J. Kenezevich has defined as:

> "....the process of supplying, maintaining, transporting, storing, accounting and renewing of human, fiscal or material resources necessary to initiate, sustain or modify the activities of organized institutions in the pursuit of predetermined goals."

Educational purposes are not self-executing. It isn't enough to be concerned with new structures, new partnerships, new ideas. Every educational activity must be translated into the resources needed to initiate and sustain it; every program must be given sophisticated support in the logistical sense if it is to achieve its objectives. A great need exists in Title III of ESEA as well as in other facets of Federal and State legislation to create model logistical systems appropriate for educational endeavors which are striving to be relevant to communities under stress and in the process of change. The traditional school needs more fully developed educational logistics systems; the more flexible and dynamic educational entities, currently seen as necessary, have even greater logistical needs. The greater the number of modifications or changes desired, the greater the variety of responses mobilized, the greater becomes the need for educational logistics.

Finally, I would suggest the development of comprehensive school districts as a start in the development of educational biomes as engines of change. The comprehensive school district is a convenient term to describe an enlargement and modification of current school districts to give substance to the beginning of the concept of community as "an educational enterprise organized across jurisdictional lines for the pursuit of effective joint action by people who have common purposes."

A comprehensive school district resembles in some respects the organization of a university, where students may take courses in more than one college or school within the university. The organizational structure of the district is designed so that a school may reach beyond its own curriculum to satisfy the needs of its students. Though each school should offer all of the programs for which the number of students is sufficiently large, particular schools within the district should be designated to offer special programs for which the number of students is too limited or the specialized facilities and equipment required are too costly to be offered at every school in the district. Thus, one school might have a program unique in the district which would attract students from any other school in the district. Each school might offer specialized and enriching experiences which could not appropriately be offered at every school, yet which would be available to each student attending the school district.

In the conventional school, only the more capable, collegebound students are instructed in mathematics such as geometry and trigonometry, or in the sciences such as physics and chemistry. Students who may, for instance, become truck drivers or beauticians tend to be sidetracked into different course content and, consequently, come to have little appreciation for many of the subject matter areas that are deemed most important in our complex society.

In a truly comprehensive school, on the other hand, every student would be given an opportunity to benefit from instruction in all subject areas to the extent that he is capable, and be guided and assisted until he gains an appropriate mastery of the essential areas. Each student would be instructed in the essential tools of learning and in an appropriate phase of every major subject matter area.

A comprehensive school district has five essential features:

(1) It provides a program of instruction vastly more comprehensive than any single school would be able to afford by itself. This includes not only a phased curriculum in which each student is instructed at whatever level he is capable of mastering in every major subject taught in the district, but also special instruction for both high school students and adults who wish to acquire particular marketable skills or further their education in particular areas.

(2) It provides for quality assurance of the educational product within the district through continuous surveillance of programs, teaching methods, materials and administrative procedures.

(3) It provides for the development of new instructional programs to meet the demands of a comprehensive curriculum.

(4) It engages in "joint-actions" with outside organizations, governmental levels and private enterprise to further its ends.

(5) It provides a management system to make all these activities possible.

If our elementary and secondary school system is to be relevant and serviceable for all students, its curriculum must be coordinated with society in the same sense that it is now coordinated with the colleges and universities. This kind of a system will be built of elements which are far too complex, too confused and too unpredictable to be arranged in neat categories. There will be needs for technological and managerial sophistication as well as for the construction of new alliances. In all this, I sense the requirement to continually face up to ambiguities and frustrations. Seen in this context, Title III of ESEA is significant indeed, because this is the task confronting it.

Much is already being done under Title III to give content to joint action by marshalling Federal funds behind multilateral programs and by otherwise strengthening institutions to undertake common actions. When the record of the last few years is reviewed in all these respects, it will be found to be both impressive and filled with potential. Of course, the lament of Linus in connection with his potential may provide the fitting conclusion: "Everyone's so upset because I didn't make the honor roll.... My mother's upset, my father's upset, the principal's upset. Good grief! ....they all say the same thing. They're disappointed because I have such potential...There's no heavier burden than a great potential."

TITLE III AND THE CITIES

Sidney P. Marland, Jr., President,
Institute for Educational Development, New York

Since the title which accompanies my name in the program is less than two weeks old, I should present my credentials before sharing with you my thoughts on the very important topic assigned to me: how to bring about change through Title III which will benefit the children of the cities. As a superintendent of schools for 20 years, and as a big city superintendent for the past five years, I have, I am certain, become part of the educational establishment. Perhaps I should be viewed with suspicion, especially today, when one hears the cries of "unresponsive bureaucracy," "dead hand of city school administration," "hide-bound educational establishment." For as a school administrator and teacher, I believe deeply in the ultimate worth of the educational establishment.

The Institute for Educational Development (IED), where I now earn my living, is made up of a small and highly competent group of professional people, each of whom brings to his task unique competencies. Among the group are a psychologist, a businessman, a sociologist, a statistician, an attorney, an economist, a political scientist, and, in my case, a school administrator and teacher, notwithstanding the fact that I have no school to administer at this time, and no students to teach. But the mission of IED, and the attraction it holds for me is precisely the message of Title III if one changes the words of the acronym: PACE -- Programs to Accelerate Changes in Education.

Therefore, I am neither an apologist for school administration nor an external critic. In my new position I am still the internal friendly critic I have always tried to be.

Title III, if we examine it closely, was probably one of the largest acts of faith that our Congress has ever made in the arena of education. It declares that school systems, with full funding, may take imaginative risks to find new ways to teach and to learn. It is, in short, almost a blank check, dated 1965, made out to those who are sufficiently concerned and sufficiently courageous to take on the hard work of action research and development which will have its payoff in improving American education. No more than fifteen years ago, in one of our affluent and progressive school systems with which I was intimately familiar, a $2,000 budget item labeled "Research" was stricken by the town fathers with the comment, "We'll have no need for that sort of thing!" But now research is "in," and Title III is one of its symbols for action. Even now research funds represent a small fraction of one percent of the public education budget, but that is at least a public recognition of the validity of the enterprise. Few major private industries which we could mention could hope to survive with less than many times the present ratio of research funds allowed in public education.

But the atmosphere of lively and vigorous change contains misgivings. There seems to be a feeling in some quarters that the schools of the big cities cannot make it. There is an air of futility and desperation among some of our observers, among them prominent figures and organizations in the business and educational communities.

In a recent publication, Courtney Brown, Dean of Columbia's Graduate School of Business, questions whether our existing traditional educational establishment is capable of adapting to the facts of changing and expanding knowledge.

John T. Connor, former U. S. Secretary of Commerce, and now president of Allied Chemical Corporation, declares that business will have to find most of the answers to the great public problems. But there is no greater domestic problem than education in our big cities.

In its recent examination of education, the Committee for Economic Development (CED) states that the American elementary and secondary schools are generally not measuring up to the task of providing the kind of education that produces rational, responsible, and effective citizens. One of the key conclusions of the CED report: "American schools must be better organized for innovation and change. There must be increasing emphasis on both basic and applied research and on the dissemination and practical application of that research."

Kenneth Clark, whose wisdom we have learned to respect, stated last fall: "The public schools have become captives of the middle class who have failed to use them to aid others also to move into the middle class . . . (and who have used them instead to) block further mobility." (This charge is flung at the very institution that has been held up heretofore as the principal liberating force in our society.) Clark continues, speaking especially of the big cities: "School officials and professional educators have defaulted in their educational responsibility." He refers to city school administrators as "insensitive, indifferent, affable, and at times callously rigid custodians of American public education."

As a left-handed compliment, he adds, "The past successes of American public schools seem undebatable. The fact that they...were effective mobility vehicles for white American immigrants makes even more stark and intolerable their present ineffectiveness for minority group children." Dr. Clark concluded with a grim warning: "...it is quite possible that Americans will decide deliberately or by default to sacrifice urban public schools.... If this can be done...with only Negro children as the victims, then there is no realistic basis for hope that our urban public schools will be saved."

It is against this bleak back-drop of responsible opinion from the business community and from scholars that we must weigh the compelling obligations that Title III places upon us. Let us look about us at the cities of America and consider the setting in which the opportunities of Title III may find their beginnings. There is little to be gained here in belaboring the horrendous problems of big city schools today. Let us for present purposes agree that the problems are critical and that they are increasing; but let us also agree that, as a Nation, we are capable of solving them and that we have made the commitment to solve them as demonstrated in the enactment of Title III. Title III carries within it some of the seeds for solutions. You know and I know that in our big cities there is excellent education going on. We know that competent and committed teachers are giving all the energy, emotion, and intellect they possess to the teaching of boys and girls. You know and I know that school administrators at all levels are giving upwards of 15 hours a day, every day, to be responsive to the expectations of society and the needs of children. We know these things; but more and more the application of the stereotype grows: the big cities are failing society because they are unable to change with the times.

You remember the story of the Maine potato farmer being visited by the county agricultural agent, who counselled many improvements for the farmer: crop rotation, increased fertilizer, cost-benefit records, distribution economics, technological changes. The farmer listened patiently, and when the agent had finished he replied, "Well, I understand what you're sayin', Mister, but shucks, I ain't farmin' as good as I know how, already!"

We, as teachers in the cities, seem to be viewed by some as the Maine farmer, unwilling to change, uninterested in productivity, unaware of the world around us, and well-satisfied with the status quo. We know this is not true. But the message of Title III in the cities is to be the change agent, and this is the challenge to those of us who formulate and direct the Title III efforts.

During the past few weeks, as I have thought about this address, I have had the chance to review some of the history and reflect upon the outcomes of the Title III effort nationally. It is an impressive story. Title III is the change agent for the American public schools today. In its most comprehensive sense, Title III has within it the source of a massive regeneration in big city education. This is not to say that all new programs, and all constructive changes, and all enlightened innovation will derive from the funds or the structure of Title III. But it is to say that change is now respectable; significant sums of money are being invested in change; and the kinds of people who are competent to effect change are on the job. This means that a spirit of regeneration can and should flow from the Title III activities to the total system, thereby changing the behavior of learners, teachers, and administrators.

In the official report of the Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare following the first full year of Title III, Senator Wayne Morse transmits what he calls "the independent views of responsible men and women of the education community" in an assessment of Title III. These appraisers, in a 500-page report with which I am sure you are familiar, cite many fumbles and obstacles to the Title III ideal, but they declare: "Considering everything -- weaknesses and strengths, blunders and triumphs, politics and purity -- Title III has thus far achieved outstanding success, probably more so than any other ESEA title."

This is an important message, stated consciously by respectable men and women in our profession who could have, had they found evidence, demolished Title III.

There is probably no advantage here in citing the difficulties and frustrations accompanying any such massive instrument as Title III and its legislative intent. We can deplore the delays in Federal funding, the threatened reduction in budgets, the demands for extensive validation and evaluation in securing grants -- these are well documented in the published reviews of Title III, and they are capable of gradual refinement, correction, and improvement by people of good will at all levels of the enterprise.

Some interesting profiles emerge in examining the statistical reports on Title III projects. I think that a few highlights should be examined here. In 1966, there were 2706 Title III proposals submitted, and of these well over half were disapproved. This shows the selectivity that prevailed at the start. In 1967, 1767 proposals were submitted. Of these, 935, about half, were approved, in addition to some 500 projects carried over from 1966, making a total of some 1442 for the year 1967. In 1968, there were 1678 proposals submitted. Of these only about a third, 566, were approved; with carry-overs again continued from 1966 and 1967, a total of about 1581 projects were in motion during 1968. The fact that fewer initial proposals are being submitted each year is evident, indicating the carrying forward of proposals approved earlier.

Of the proposals submitted in 1967, some 39% or 689, were from cities, a category including school systems with over 25,000 children. Since less than 1% of our school systems have 25,000 or more students, it is significant that 39% of the proposals came from this group.

One of the important messages that appears to come through from these data is the fact that sharp selection is going on, that presumably a quality control prevails, and that certainly a strong emphasis is being put on funding programs in big cities. I would, indeed, venture a guess that your own experience with big city school administrators has revealed a highly competitive and possibly demanding behavior on their part to insure support for the Title III enterprises of their particular communities. This is healthy evidence of a will to change in the big cities.

We, therefore, seem to have begun to learn how Title III works. We seem to be off to a good start in the eyes of those competent to assess the work of Title III. I would, therefore, like to offer for consideration by the big city Title III planners a number of ways in which I feel they can find a further response to this law -- issues, if you will, which the resources of Title III can attack.

1. Focus in depth. I am not certain, but I think Harold Howe first used the term "post-holing." This is a good term. While Title III was widely and necessarily thinly diffused in its initial efforts, I urge now that a large proportion of it be devoted to post-holing. By this I mean very substantial investments in deeper explorations of sharper focus, with very substantial funding for well-defined educational objectives. Post-holing is the opposite of plowing, harrowing, or raking. Assuming that we will never have sufficient resources to fund research and development proposals or efforts in every worthy school system, I urge that the cities be encouraged to identify very large issues, to design very large solutions whatever the cost, and to secure Title III support for big enterprises that will attack the universal ailments. This may mean that instead of 50 big cities getting Title III support, perhaps only 5 will, but they will get 10 times as much money as they would have otherwise received. And with this they had better dig good, deep post-holes, cleanly made and available for everyone to look into.

2. Combine resources. The Office of Education has shown good sense in encouraging, so far, the collective process in getting at educational change. One grant, for example, embracing 26 school systems and 125,000

students, points in this direction, and there are others. Further, the U. S. Office initiative in E.S. '70, a consortium of 17 school districts engaged in a complete reconstruction of the secondary school program, points in this same direction. Notwithstanding the onerous administrative problems the consortium raises, there are three good reasons why it makes sense: (1) The administrator and the Board of Education have the comforting companionship of others as they travel unexplored trails; (2) The pooling of creative talent from several systems multiplies the likelihood of an imaginative product, provided the dead hand of extramural compromise does not get in the way, and (3) The chances for dissemination are multiplied at the start -- the lack of dissemination is an admitted weakness in many present programs.

3. Hasten the process of change. So far, many of the topics to which Title III efforts have been addressed are the immediate, here-and-now needs of instruction. There have naturally been very great differences in the degrees of sophistication and in the levels of innovative style in the projects now in operation. This range embraces far-reaching and creative enterprises on the one hand and efforts to validate the kindergarten on the other. It is the nature of education to start where one is and to go forward from there, but opinions as to where we are differ widely among schools. But the process of movement from where we are to where we might be is part of Title III's message to all communities. One of the painful customs of our craft is that we have been extremely reluctant to take up the inventions of each other and to short-circuit the slow and inefficient process of having to rediscover every worthy development in teaching and learning. We have been limited by the feeling that we must somehow rediscover for ourselves every worthy innovation that comes upon the schools. As a school administrator I am fully aware of the need to have full participation by teachers and others engaged in this evolution. But I urge the discovery, especially at the State educational department level, of designs for accelerating the democratic arrangements for discourse, digestion, decision, and adoption among faculties. This change in the process of diffusion is a Title III need.

4. Enlarge the scope. Up to this point I have been talking about change in the abstract as a part of the Title III message. While some people these days seem to think that change, mere change itself, is a worthy goal, I am sure that I need not emphasize the judicious selection that must govern us in choosing among the alternatives of the change process. What changes is more important than how many changes there are. Accordingly, let me make some concrete suggestions as to specific and large opportunities for change in the big cities.

While it is agreed, as just noted, that we start from where we are in any innovative enterprise, the most competent and sophisticated school systems should turn their Title III efforts to still higher levels of problem solving. I refer to these needs as more global perhaps in nature than the more immediate enterprises now typically being pursued. I list these three suggested areas of change, giving them, I am sure, only superficial treatment in terms of their importance.

a. Restore and increase public faith and confidence in the schools of the cities. Rather than reciting the intrinsic good in education that we here know about, I say: Let us actually mount a major demonstration of unquestioned objectivity that puts before the universe the record of public education, and the excellence of the service to the majority of the people. Let us make known the overwhelming but necessary new demands placed upon the schools by society during the past few years, and let us make known measures now being taken within our means to meet those demands. Lest this be viewed as a public relations effort, this action should be designed by the ablest scholars and conducted on the highest professional level. Instead of searching for weaknesses, which the newly come critics are disposed to do, (and we in education are perhaps our own most caustic critics) this action would be clearly aimed at searching for strengths, at identifying the good. There is plenty of testimony both valid and invalid to describe the bad. But unless something like this is done, unless a change such as this is instituted, the application of the dreadful stereotype of big city education will grow, despite the truth, and with it will come increasing national self-doubt and what Archibald MacLeish calls the "inexplicable numb uneasiness" which has come upon America. Of course there are shortcomings and weaknesses and they must be corrected, but they must be placed in perspective with the strengths. To drift into a consensus of defeat, hearing only the loud cliches of those who would humiliate public education, for whatever reason, is to surrender the only institution that possesses the long-term cure to our social ills. In short, if the schools of America are going to rise to the expectations now thrust upon them (and no other institution is at hand to serve as an alternative), then there must be a very strong resurgence of faith in the schools, based on sound evidence and nondefensive testimony.

b. Arrange for systematizing the place of business in public education. For the past year or two, as the public schools have come more and more into prominence as the chief hope for our cities, I have been asked again and again by concerned business leaders how the business and industrial community can take its place in helping the schools. They are now speaking not only of the conventional relationships of work-study affiliations, guidance and counseling, and scholarship aid, but of a total commitment to helping the schools do their work, especially in the big cities. One may say that this is a form of enlightened self-interest, and indeed it may be, for the business community hears the earnest warnings of the Kenneth Clarks and the Thomas Pettigrews and the Daniel Moynihans. But they now appear to be morally and selflessly concerned as well -- at least at the top level of the business community. And quick and easy answers do not come to mind when a large corporation president says, "I am ready to have our company do anything we can to help. What do you want?"

By way of illustration, formal education, as we know it, has been slow to explore the potentials to the teaching and learning process in programmed instruction. Not so in private industry, where the costs and effectiveness of training and education are a matter of prime concern. The Bell Telephone System, with well over 800,000 employees and 24 operating companies across the Nation, has taken a pioneer role in using programmed instruction for fundamental training of its employees. This is, indeed, a large school system. This organization, which annually hires between 175,000 to 200,000 persons, has been using programmed instruction for about 6 years in 12 major centers. Several hundred thousand Bell employees have learned their job skills or parts of their skills through programmed instruction. They have not waited for us, the presumed professionals of the science of the art of teaching, to open the way. It is reasonable to say that in this field at least they are ahead of the schools, and they are saying, "How can we help to solve the big city school problems?"

Title III may have the means to answer this question in a new ordering of the arrangements between industrial expertise and the educator. In a recent formal policy statement, the National Association of Manufacturers has resolved:

> The Association believes that the business community should muster its best resources (knowledge, manpower, and financial support) in an effort to develop effective, imaginative approaches to solving educational problems of our urban centers and rural areas.
>
> Particular attention should be given to the problems of the disadvantaged groups and to methods or techniques for accelerating their education and employability.

We are indeed in default if, given time, we do not come up with a systematic answer to offers of this kind. If we do not, others will, and we will have been found wanting.

c. Teach the child of the ghetto effectively. I will not elaborate on this. We know the work of Title I; we know of the painfully slow growth, the discouraging, and seemingly insurmountable obstacles that stand in our way; we know of the prolonged outrage of the black citizen who sees us as unresponsive to his child's needs; we see the revolutionary changes in community school organization that will not wait for long-term conventional solutions. But Title III has the power of a moon-shot within its legislative intent. The equivalent of a Space Agency investment in the moon is now called for in the redress of the ghetto child's deprivation. Little bits and pieces, and even some fairly large bits and pieces have not yet worked. Probably a completely different set of educational arrangements is called for, arrangements unlike those which have been successful for the middle-class child. This may mean public boarding schools, a vast system of tutorials, a massive in-school program of nutrition, a compulsory parent-education system accompanying the child's new environment, or, indeed, even more drastic and expensive measures than these. But a new system must be found, and it must be found soon, and it must be readily transferable from its starting place, wherever that may be, to the other cities.

These are a few of the global issues which Title III leaders should confront as they bend their efforts toward change in the cities. I know you could list a dozen more. I offer them as a practitioner of education, seeking help. I know I speak for school leaders as well as for the nonprofit institutions concerned with education, such as our own Institute for Educational Development. For I know that the city schools of this land are sound and good, and that we can change to respond to the changing needs of our people and the world about us. I know that school administrators are giving all they now have and all they now know to the task. I am convinced that most teachers believe deeply in the sacredness of each human being in their classrooms, and that they live with the optimistic hope that each child's potential can be fulfilled. We must not let this present ferment cause us to lose faith in ourselves or in our profession. We need the discoveries of your good offices to do our job better.

Teachers and administrators, broadly speaking, are willing to grow and change, indeed are eager to grow and change, given the evidence of a better way. Title III has opened the door to better ways, for the first time giving public monies directly to the educational innovator. You have a very large responsibility under the law, but an even larger responsibility under the cries for social justice. The administrator and the teacher are waiting for your help.

THE CENTRAL CITIES EFFORT

Sam Kavruck
Chief, Demonstration Projects Branch
Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers
U. S. Office of Education

Concern for urban education has been a characteristic of the ESEA Title III Program (PACE) from its inception. One of four national thrusts originally designated for the Title III program was planning for metropolitan areas. As of November 1967, PACE projects were funded in 49 of the Nation's largest cities. Of 253 projects costing over $38 million, 116 were planning projects costing $9,700,000, and 137 were operational costing $28,400,000. Children in urban areas participated in educational programs which sought to change radically traditional school facilities and practices. Many of these programs departed from the standard pupil-teacher ratio of 25 or 30 to one; from the 5½ to 6-hour day; from the 40-minute period; from the 600 to 800 square feet of classroom space; from the standard textbook; from the 5-day school week; and from other conventions known to most of us in our lock-step throughout the school system.

Supplementary educational centers were established in old warehouses, in store-front facilities, in abandoned railroad terminals, in department stores, in home living rooms, in community parks, on the stoops of tenement houses, in college dormitories empty during summer sessions, on beaches and in swamps, in libraries and museums, and in centers for performing arts. Those of you who visit these centers will find programs exploring every aspect of the entire educational spectrum. Programs exist for the promotion of arts and humanities, for oceanographic study, for dropout prevention, for astronomy, for Asian and African culture and language, for inservice training and preparation of teacher aides, for curriculum improvement, for individualized instruction, and for transition to careers and work. The impact on the child, on parents, and on school staff of such programs is a matter for our continued investigation.

Nevertheless, by the fall of 1967, it became quite apparent that education in urban areas and particularly in the inner city was badly in need of a far greater effort than had ever been generated before. Symptomatic of such need was the ever-increasing dropout and unemployment rate, the decline in achievement levels, the difficulty in recruiting highly qualified administrators and teachers, the deterioration in community-school relations, and the vociferous discontent of the ghetto parent.

Thereupon, the Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education began to consider approaches for maximizing the efforts of its existing staff and resources, particularly within the ESEA Title III effort, in the continuing quest for improved educational programs for inner city children. Recognizing that too few operating ESEA Title III projects had been able to penetrate the central city with innovative approaches, the Office assigned top priority to this area of concern and by February of 1968, a Central Cities Task Force was established within the Office. As a beginning, it was hoped that the task force would direct its effort towards the identification of ten target cities and the development of creative programs within them.

Seeking assistance from educators both within and without the Office to consider directions for the program, the task force held a seminar on March 19-20 in Washington. There, Dr. Mario Fantini spoke on resources for community involvement. Dr. Herman Goldberg, the superintendent of schools in Rochester, New York, accompanied by Paul Smith, a concerned parent, spoke on problems and approaches in central city education. During the seminar, Dr. Nolan Estes, then Associate Commissioner for Elementary and Secondary Education, outlined prototypes for educational excellence which, he felt, should be the hallmarks of the central city projects to be developed. He hoped that each project would be characterized by programs of early childhood education, programs to expand the individualization of instruction, programs to facilitate the transition to the world of work, staff training, expanded school-community activities, and racially and socially shared learning experiences. He hoped, further, that each project would be guided by some form of Human Resource Board, and by a top-notch area administrator responsible to the Board; that the target area, carefully selected, would involve a vertical cut contiguous with schools serving pre-kindergarten children through job entry or higher education, that is, a sub-system; that the project would reflect a major commitment of staff and resources, sufficient to result in significant change; and that procedures for developing a support system for both short- and long-range planning and evaluation would be included. He warned against fragmentation of effort, against dissipation of funds, against remedial programs which bore little relation to the total program, against curriculum programs which bore little reality or relevancy for the ghetto child, against class-size reduction with no other accompanying changes, and against disparate programs of enrichment making little contribution to the total program.

The immediate objectives imposed a tremendous responsibility on the Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers and upon members of the Central Cities Task Force. During the 60 days remaining in the fiscal year, it would be necessary to obtain commitments, assist applicants in project development, review and evaluate formal applications, and allocate funds. Project proposals were received from 23 cities by the May 13th deadline. A number of the projects involved staff from the ESEA Title IV regional laboratories. Under Title XI of NDEA, central city staff training institutes were arranged with nine colleges or universities. Nine of the projects were in Model City areas. Together with five other previously funded central city projects which meet the prototype components, the 28 central cities projects representing the task force's initial thrust have been funded with ESEA Title III funds at a cost of $14,343,398. (The chart on page 86 shows the distribution and costs of these projects.)

Through contract with the Office, the Research Council of the Great Cities Program for School Improvement is arranging a central cities conference to be held in Detroit from October 9 through 11, 1968. Participants primarily will be persons associated with the central city projects. Major emphasis will be given to problems of community involvement, but project staff will also have the opportunity to discuss general project experiences and to consider new ideas. Succeeding conferences will center on evaluation and dissemination of results.

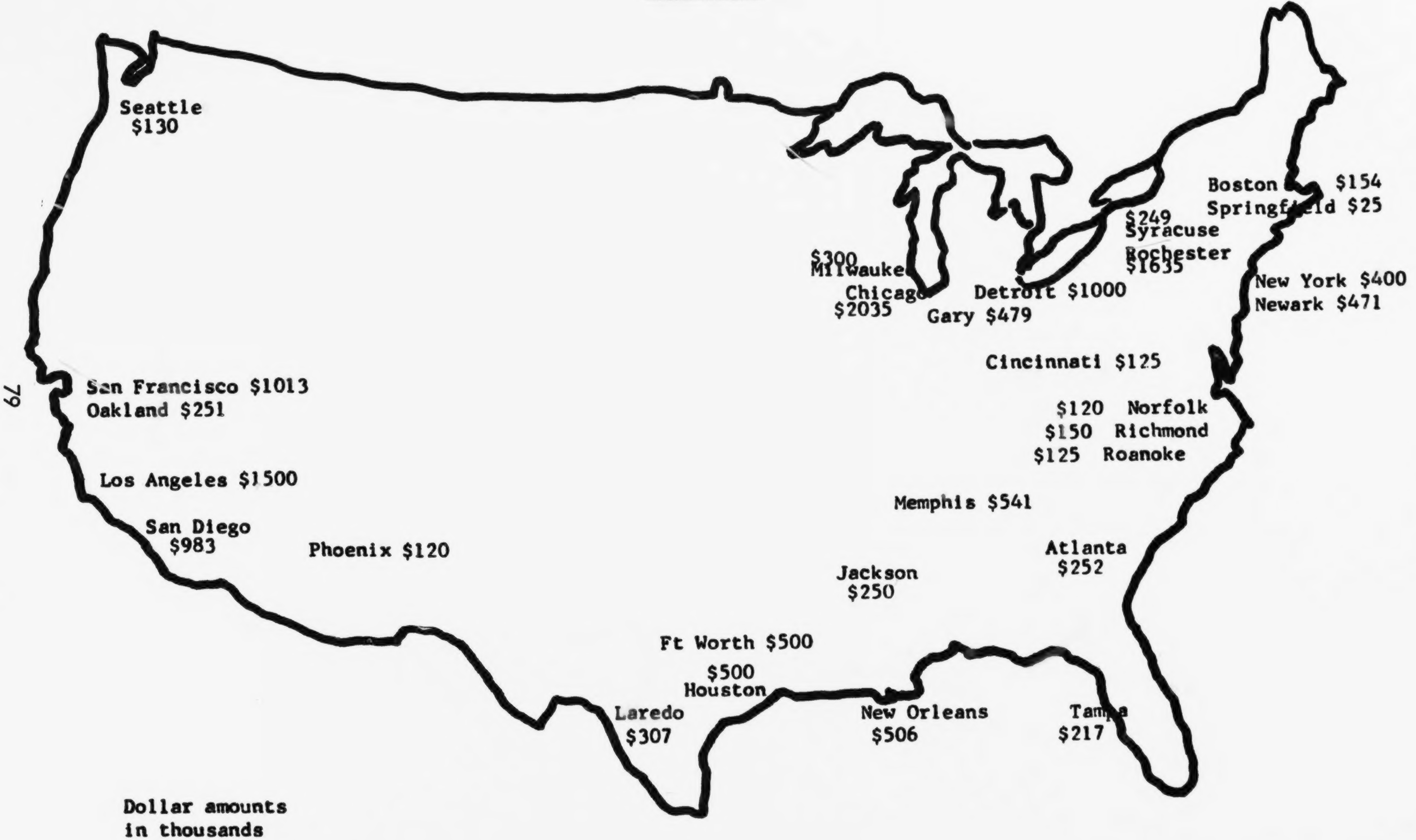
Where the central cities effort goes from here depends on a number of variables. As might be expected, a number of the projects are off to a good start; others have made little movement. Some, by design, are in the planning stage. The projects are encountering a number of continuing obstacles. One of these problems is the shortage of well qualified staff; the question of availability of funds for project continuation is another persistent problem. Greater coordination of effort, within and outside the Office, among the multiplicity of units, agencies, and organizations with interests in central city education is needed. And within our Branch, which has responsibility for administration of the central cities projects, fund and time restrictions are limiting our work with the projects despite our desire for a more meaningful involvement in their development and direction. It often appears to us as though the staff members who achieved herculean efforts in bringing the programs to fruition are thereafter least able to work with them and to see them progress to their objectives.

Of the programs with which we are presently concerned, we believe the central cities effort is and should be our chief concern. I spoke a few days ago to one of the New York City school administrators concerning the current problem on school decentralization facing the community and remarked that the wisdom of a Solomon seemed necessary. She immediately replied that they have plenty of Solomons if they could only agree on what the baby should look like. We can only say that we appreciate the challenge and will do our utmost in helping to alleviate some of the vexing concerns in central city education.

October 1968

CENTRAL CITIES EFFORT

U. S. O. E.



Dollar amounts
in thousands

A STRATEGY FOR EDUCATIONAL NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Russell A. Working
Division of Research, Planning and Development
Ohio Department of Education

The ESEA Title III requirement for needs assessment was at the same time a confounding dilemma and a recognized opportunity for buttressing the educational leadership role of the State Department of Education. The word "dilemma" appropriately reflects our initial unpreparedness for carrying out a statewide needs assessment program. A little more to the point, we did not have a smidgen of a plan on the drawing boards. I would imagine that, very much like most of the States of the Union, our budget did not, nor could we have hoped for it to, make provisions for statewide educational needs assessment of the size and scope which has become possible under Title III.

It is not that we were unaware of the value of such an undertaking. Rather, limited financial resources and overtaxed human resources within the Department has more often required us to focus upon those priorities dictated by the day-to-day firing line events of the State educational system.

Neither is it true that we have not engaged in needs assessment prior to Title III. Numerous studies have been conducted in Ohio. Some of them were sponsored by the State Department of Education, but it is also true that many of them were initiated by other groups. Such studies usually found the Department serving a supporting role. Some of the major Ohio studies vis-a-vis "The Purdy Report" and "The Little Hoover Commission Report" and the myriad of lesser formal and informal studies, although helpful, shared in varying degrees some of the following limitations:

1. Studies often dealt with microcosms of the educational scene so that only limited views of problems and needs could be ascertained at any one time.

2. Results from independent studies could not be articulated and interrelated with data from other studies.

3. Findings were not readily generalizable for the entire State because of serious concern about the representativeness of the data.

4. Inadequate data collection procedures and instrumentation often resulted in composites of large quantities of data that were unuseable. Probably it could be said that we have too much data, but insofar as needs assessment is concerned, these data have not been helpful in more than a limited manner.

Such assessment activities cannot be relied upon to undergird the decision-making that must take place in education. More importantly, these studies often lacked the direction-pointing kinds of data that are so essential for designing programs or means whereby practical solutions to educational problems may be planned and implemented.

It may be helpful to recap some of those descriptors which impinge upon the problems of needs assessment in Ohio.

- The student population in Ohio is 2,358,519.
- Presently, we have 651 school districts. As few as 5 years ago, we had a whopping 800 school districts. In a nutshell, the organization of school districts in Ohio is, to say the least, fluid and evolving.
- Nine of the current 651 school districts constitute 25 percent of the total pupil population.
- Seventeen counties in Ohio are in Appalachia.
- Ohio ranks near the top in the number of cities classified as major cities.
- The per pupil expenditure in Ohio ranges from $212 to $2,492.

The development of a needs assessment strategy assumed a position of special emphasis within the Department. The State Superintendent of Public Instruction was often very much involved in the planning sessions which took place. Over a period of a few weeks some preliminary guidelines were established, and over the succeeding months these guidelines have been clarified into a set of criteria that the needs assessment activity was to follow.

Two levels of educational needs assessment were distinguished. One related to the individual learner and the other to the educational establishment. Both reference points are included in the selected definition of educational need;

> "An educational need is defined as the difference between what the learner is able to do and his current level of functioning. Critical educational needs are (1) those quantitative and qualitative deficiencies of opportunities (a) which can be described as pervasive for the majority of students, or (b) which exist in an identified minority of students to such an extent as to seriously impair, if not jeopardize, their level of functioning, and (2) deficiencies in the educational system which contribute to this difference of performance."

Certainly we know that we can objectify needs, but needs are not necessarily objective. Any study of needs must essentially relate that which is desired to the condition that exists. The discrepancy between the subjective desire of some group and what actually exists is a need. Of equal importance is the inclusion of the element of time. Since priorities of needs are to be established, the time factor will assist in sorting out one need as more immediately important than another.

Needs assessment study areas were to be selected to avoid excessive fragmentation, and likewise, not to be so gross as to be unmanageable. It was clear that study themes like "Rural Education," "Curriculum Development," "Inner City Education," or "Identification of Factors Which Stimulate Innovative Practices in Education," are so gross and pervasive as to make very difficult an approach to the problem within the time and money constraints available to us. On the other hand, we were concerned about splintering. Identifying a grain of sand does not help to describe an ocean beach or a desert dune.

Those potential areas of assessment which meet the criteria of (a) falling under the umbrella of Title III needs assessment and (b) serving an immediate management purpose within the Department, would supersede in priority those study areas which have long-term relatedness to Title III activities. In essence, study areas that held the potential for providing much needed data for determining the critical needs in Title III and would facilitate the management and leadership roles of the Department were to be established as priority study areas.

The study task areas were to be framed in terms that would have meaning for subsequent decisions within Title III projects. To say that a need exists does not establish an adequate base upon which decisions must later be made concerning the size, scope, and quality of specific research and development programs. The question was asked, "Could we not include under needs assessment additional data which would point generally to the means whereby needs could be reduced or eliminated?" The position was taken that needs assessment would include those evaluative procedures which were essential predecessors to program development. Therefore, each needs assessment area which was to be selected would include (a) identification of needs, (b) an inventory of the resources, human and non-human, that relate to the critical condition and (c) alternative solutions that are feasible at present, or those that are feasible only in the near- or distant-future. Phase-in models of alternatives and related sequencing of solutions were to be sought. We would select that plan for needs assessment that would least interfere with the ongoing educational programs within the State and still provide us an assurance that the information collected would be valid, appropriate, adequate, and representative of the Ohio educational system.

It was exactly this last point which caused us to stumble for a while, i.e., securing a representative sample. I would suppose it is unnecessary for me to say that drawing a representative statewide sample is no mean task. It became obvious quite early that constraints -- money and time limitations -- existed which precluded using all of the school districts of the State as a base for data collection. A sound sampling procedure had to be developed.

We would not duplicate the collection of valid and reliable data which had already been collected in prior studies. Within any one problem area, the focus would be upon identifying the data gaps or data inadequacies and devising means to eliminate these gaps.

We would minimize our dependence upon subjective data. Sources of objective data to be used were standardized scores, dropout rates, unemployment statistics, patterns and levels of continuing education, crime and delinquency reports, available health data and needs, and more generally, current educational statistics, socio-economic data, and motivational and/or aspiration levels of communities. Further, where appropriate and valid, information sources were to be used that may be described as somewhat less than objective. Such data would not be used as primary data, but, instead, would be used to temper objective data as well as to identify potential new areas for further needs assessment activities. Needs assessment was to be viewed as providing the initial step in statewide educational planning. Such evaluative activities would cut across State, Federal, and local programs. The process would not result in a single product, but would be cyclical and ongoing. That which may be determined to be a critical need one year may not be so listed two or three years hence, using subsequent data. Within any one study area, we may have need to sort data by regions to ascertain existing significant variances from the State average. Averages can obscure sharp differences within a sample. Further, study areas must lend themselves to grouping so that the data, when composited and interrelated, may result in more data than the mere sum of the separate task areas.

Such were the requirements for needs assessment. Translating them into a design was quite another matter. Despite our predisposition for looking upon Ohio as being substantially different from other States, we found solace in thinking that other States shared our frustrations. We were aware that many of our problems were nationwide in scope.

Within the Department, probably very much like other State departments of education, we could not find personnel whose schedules would tolerate an added work load; and, specifically, we did not have the number of research and evaluation specialists that would be required to design and execute an undertaking of the proportion we envisioned. We shopped around. After preliminary discussions with a number of organizations which had educationally oriented research capabilities, the decision was made to negotiate two contracts: one with Battelle Memorial Institute, Columbus Laboratories, and the other with the Educational Research Council of America. These organizations had the professional staff -- psychologists, sociologists, economists, statisticians, systems analysts, etc. -- to meet our requirements.

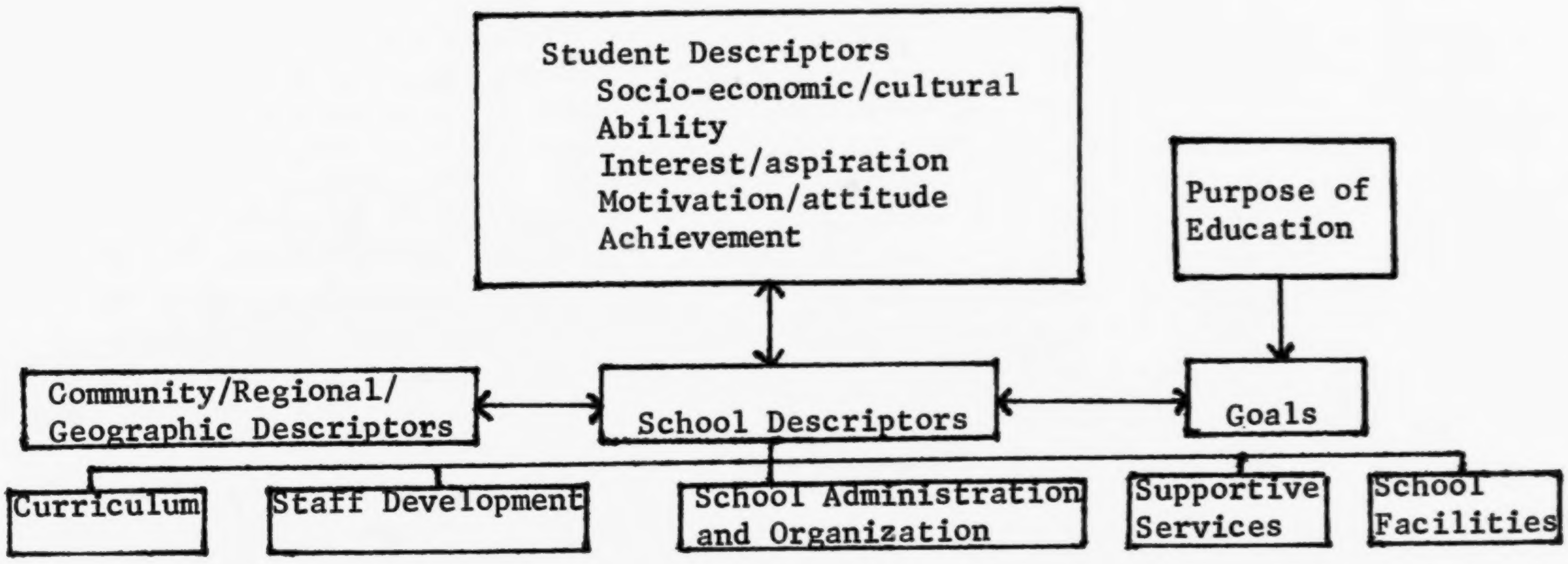
We found that the more clearly we defined our expectations or goals in operational terms, the more effective the process of needs assessment became for the investigating agency. This should not surprise anyone, but neither should it be looked upon as an easy task.

Two major problems were encountered:

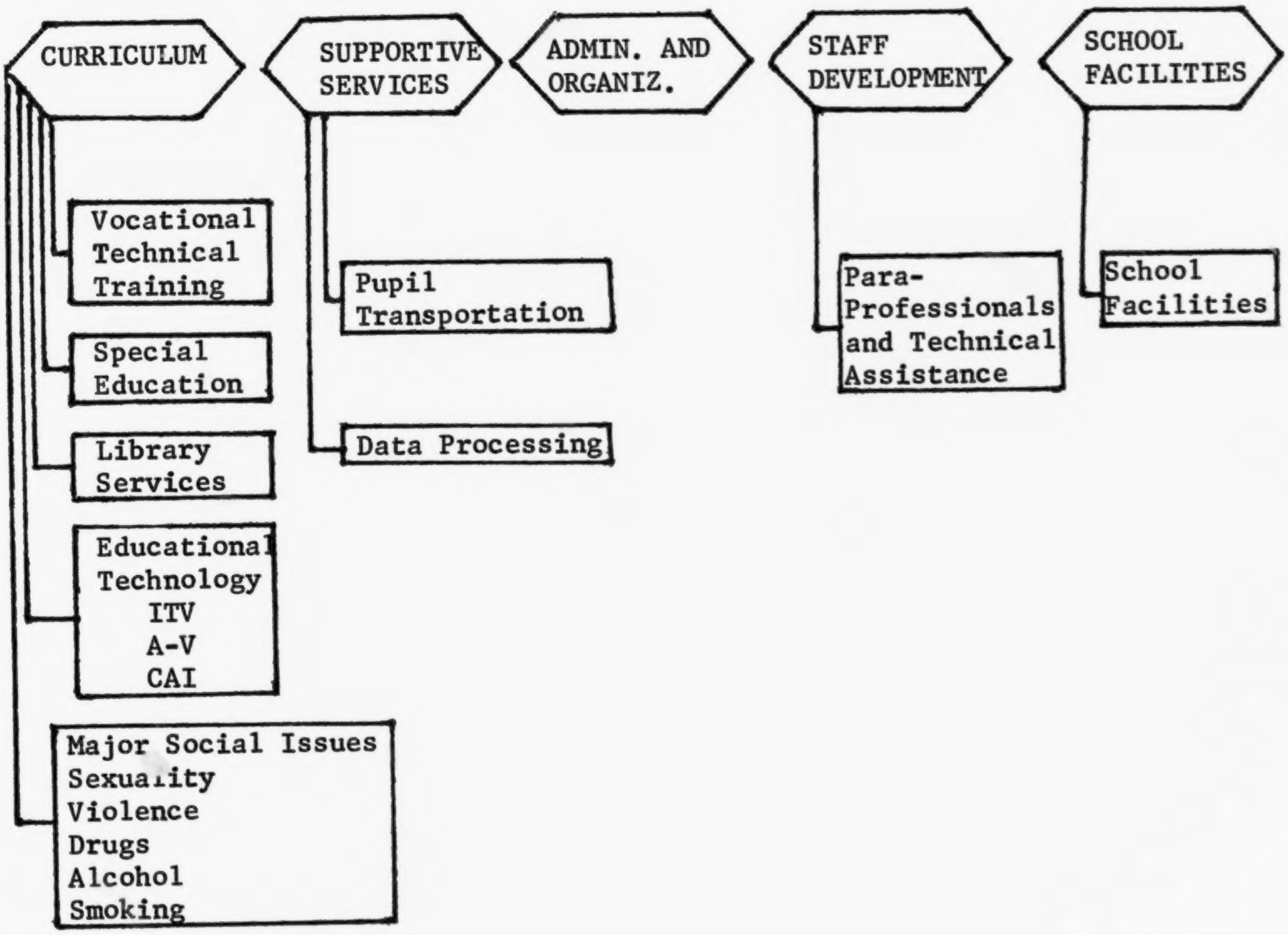
1. Establishing an adequate monitoring and coordinating function between the investigating agency and the numerous contact persons within the Department. Getting the right resource people together and keeping persons informed of the status of the study was very important; and

2. Assisting the investigating agency to understand the nature, operation and idiosyncracies of State and local educational systems. Education to most of them was a set of preconceptions -- often unrealistic ones.

A Master Strategy for Educational Needs Assessment was designed, a design which related broad generalized areas of educational activity (i.e. curriculum) back to global data descriptors and the corresponding operational goals. Although we acknowledged that, for example, sub-units under Curriculum or Staff Development may not be mutually exclusive, we knew that any analysis of educational needs must, of necessity, fragment the total unit into logical sub-units. Two characteristics we tried to keep operable in the model were: (a) any sub-unit could be traced back to the goals and purposes and primary data sources (verticle channelling); and (b) sub-units could be related with other sub-units for supporting horizontal comparisons.



Areas chosen for the initial Needs Assessment Phase were:



Built into the scheme was a carefully laid out interrelationship of role interactions among the Ohio Department of Education, the investigating agency, and the Title III State Advisory Council.

How is the strategy working out? What kinds of results have we seen as a consequence of 92.8 percent of our Title III administrative funds being spent on educational needs assessment? The final story, of course, cannot be told. The initial phase report will not be complete until November of 1968; however, several non-data-based preliminary outcomes and by-products can be described:

- A sound information base is being developed to assist in the administration and management of Title III activities.
- The needs assessment study has been a catalyst in developing and coordinating plans to regionalize educational centers in Ohio and to determine the extent and kinds of services that can most efficiently and effectively be provided through these centers.
- Departmental strategies are being related to data describing needs, resources, and alternative solutions.

* * *

SUMMARY OF GROUP DISCUSSION

The problem of identifying needs prior to the study of those needs was discussed at length. Participants felt that if the State educational agency staff merely decides arbitrarily what the needs are, some critical educational needs may go unnoticed. For accuracy and completeness, original surveys should be made, in addition to gathering data from such sources as the regional educational laboratory, ESEA Title I evaluation reports, reports on civil disorders, and the State educational agency annual report. It is also very important to involve the community in the identification of needs, and to consider the needs of the learner as the primary factor. Survey instruments should be developed to reach all segments of the public--children, parents, superintendents, teachers, etc.

Other participants noted that although educational needs must be identified and assessed accurately and thoroughly through careful study, State educational agencies must make some immediate decisions on needs in order to start planning new projects. Therefore, it will be necessary to make some assumptions in order to begin--assumptions as to what the educational goals and obvious educational needs are in the States. Then, reliable data can be collected and a long-range, more complete identification of educational goals and needs can be initiated. In the case of Ohio, Dr. Working noted that there have been some surprising results from their initial studies, results which will give needed direction as they continue their needs identification and assessment.

In North Dakota, a statewide study of educational needs by a university professor found six major needs, among them reorganization and better teacher training. The State representative said that this study is inadequate in terms of Title III requirements since it was done from a financial standpoint.

In Missouri, a survey of available data will be made, as well as a study of the yearly self-evaluation of each school district and the State educational agency evaluation of each district. After studying these sources and determining their inadequacies, the State educational agency will make other studies to fill the gaps; these studies will include both subjective surveys and a statewide testing program. All these data will be considered indicators of State educational needs.

Two needs-assessment strategies are included in New Hampshire's plans, one short-range and the other long-range. This State estimates that the long-range needs assessment will take at least three years. The three questions being asked are as follows: What is our educational philosophy? What behaviors do we want to develop to concur with this philosophy? What standards should we establish to reach these goals?

The tentative approach to needs assessment in California emphasizes asking the people what the educational needs are. Using this approach, a number of teams would examine different areas of cities in the State. These teams would ask the parents of children at different grade levels what they want in the schools for their children, what behaviors they think should be developed, etc. This data then would be analyzed, the schools would be studied in relation to the data, and priorities would be assigned. It is estimated that two to three years will be needed to complete this assessment, and until the assessment is completed, the State educational agency will rely primarily on the needs identified in past Title III project proposals.

Colorado's approach is similar to that of New Hampshire and includes both a short-range and a long-range strategy of needs assessment. Staff members will seek to translate the educational goals of the State educational agency into operational terms. Two major assumptions will be made in initiating the needs assessment: State assessment should be based on local assessments; and the method of approach to determining needs should be to look at the characteristics of the clientele (students), their experiences (curriculum), and the product (behavior).

In Iowa, the primary assumption will be that children should complete grades K-12 and some post-graduate study after high school. Students will be interviewed to find out how far they went in school, when they dropped out, and why.

A university study is being conducted in Idaho to find out what data is already available on State educational needs and what data is pertinent. From the results of this study, State educational agency staff members will determine where the data gaps are.

The group agreed that a realistic time table is necessary for thorough and accurate needs assessment but that, at the same time, the needs assessment program must be structured so that thrusts can be made when money is available for new projects. Participants also noted the difficulties in trying to articulate different types of existing data, and one participant suggested that State educational agencies should be cautious in using university groups for assessment because of their theoretical approach to assessment, an approach which may not always bring desired results.

Finally, the group discussed the role of the Office of Education in assisting the States in their needs assessments. Participants felt that it would be very helpful if the Office would extract general trends in needs assessment, according to the State plans, and send a summary of those trends to the States. In addition, the Office could develop relevant generalizations about needs assessment, for example, the importance of self-appraisal and community involvement to the effectiveness of the needs assessment program and to the whole Title III program, and then make these generalizations known to the States. This type of communication would be invaluable, especially on a continuing basis.

LONG-RANGE PLANNING

J. Warren Hitt
Deputy Commissioner of Education
Texas Education Agency

Long-range educational planning is probably one of the most talked about, and certainly one of the most critical, concerns of the educational decision-maker today -- at the local level, at the State level, and at the national level. What will the process of public education look like in five years? ten years? twenty years? What kinds of outcomes will education be striving to produce in what types of people? What kinds of resources -- human, material fiscal -- will be needed? What will State departments of education be doing? What do we need to be doing today to get ready for what's coming in the years ahead?

These kinds of questions are true brain-teasers. And they are being asked in a society that is increasingly providing a sounder fiscal support base for the conduct of education, demanding better performance from the educational enterprise, and requiring fuller accountability for results produced.

We are living in a world characterized by rapid change -- changes in the value systems of individuals and of social groups, in the technology available for use by people in accomplishing their aims, in the aspirations and expectations which our people have, and in the general level of enlightenment of our total population. There is every reason to believe that the fast tempo of change will not decrease during the next two decades, but will very likely become even faster.

This can lead us to only one reasonable prediction: a large amount of change in the coming years is absolutely inevitable. We can't hold it back no matter how we try. And this leaves us only one course of action -- encourage desirable change and prevent or delay harmful change. To harness these inevitable changes and make them work for us, we must learn to anticipate as accurately as possible the changes that are likely to occur, and to increase the relevance and improve the quality of decision-making in the educational enterprise. Only through effective long-range planning can we reap the greatest long-term benefits for the resources we invest in education.

Before we get into specifics, let me suggest an operational definition of planning: the setting of goals, the identification of alternative strategies, and the allocation of resources leading to a decision to implement a course of action. To put it in simplest terms, planning is a matter of deciding what we want to accomplish, and how we can best accomplish it at least cost.

Our experience with educational planning has led us to identify at least three major dimensions of planning: it should be comprehensive, technically competent, and long-range. None of these three dimensions is an absolute quality; rather, each represents an ideal which is never completely satisfied. Each of these three qualities is always present in some greater or lesser degree whenever planning occurs.

It seems to me that there are at least two basic types of long-range planning with which we in education must concern ourselves. The first is what may be termed the incremental type. In this case, a well formulated goal is decided upon, to be fulfilled at some point in the future through a series of phases, steps, or increments which will be accomplished as sub-goals. An example of this type of long-range planning might be seen as a State department of education converts its formation system to data processing. First, the total information system is conceptualized. Implementation is set up in a series of steps, with purchase of hardware followed by other specific actions. The proposed project, perhaps covering a period of years, is often laid out in a master design in the beginning, with minor adjustments made on the basis of feedback information. This incremental type of long-range planning is characterized by the fact that some hard decisions about courses of action to be taken are made in the very beginning, commitments are made to those courses of action, and they are carried out according to schedule. This does not mean, of course, that the master plan may not be modified or even abandoned if conditions in the future demand.

The second basic type of long-range planning is of quite a different nature, and is what I will call the speculative type. This kind of long-range planning does not have as its aim the making of hard decisions about actions to be taken in the future. In fact, its aim is quite the opposite -- to give the decision-maker as many alternatives for decision-making in the future as possible. In the speculative type of long-range planning, the planner attempts to develop a framework for making predictions about the future -- value structures, conditions of need, strategies and technologies, and resources available. The planner tries to anticipate what kinds of decisions he will have to make, and the conditions under which he will have to make them -- to determine the ground rules in advance so that he will not be surprised in the future.

These two types of long-range planning probably never occur in a pure form. I have tried to separate them here for purposes of study and analysis because it seems to me that the planner must be able to recognize these two components and their proportional mix in any long-range planning efforts he makes. Both of these types involve predictions about what the future will be like. The incremental type of planning assumes that a single set of specified conditions will prevail at some point in the future and is essentially an action-producing management behavior. The speculative type of planning hypothesizes multiple possibilities for future conditions, leading to the hypothesizing of an array of alternate strategies appropriate to the various possible conditions and is essentially an intelligence-producing management behavior.

Long-range planning is not likely to occur unless that planning is also highly comprehensive and competent in terms of the techniques employed. In my view there are several elements which are indispensable to the achievement of comprehensive long-range planning. My experience has led me to identify at least six essential elements. The first of these is that the planner must have formulated a clear and workable statement of the mission of the organization, a mission statement which delimits the organization's sphere of responsiblity, its focus of activity. Without the focus of the planner's attention and energy, his task of predicting and projecting the future would be so vast as to be hopeless.

Another necessary feature is a formal structure for planning, a structure which assigns responsibility for planning functions, provides manpower and time for regular planning activities and rewards broader, long-range planning behavior as opposed to tradition-bound staff behaviors.

A third essential ingredient for long-range planning is an information system which will provide the planner with dependable and relevant information about both present conditions and projections for the future, for both his sphere of responsibility and the broader environment of activities which surround and influence his sphere of responsibility.

A fourth major element is that there be developed some formalized, yet hypothetical, projections about conditions which are likely to prevail, both in the target area of responsibility and in the surrounding environment, at specified points in the future. In some cases, such a projection might be a single prediction about a future condition or group of conditions. In other cases, this projection might be more in the nature of multiple-contingency prediction, with several plausible outcomes identified. What is essential, however, is that some hypothetical position be taken about what a given future situation will be.

Let me stress again the hypothetical, tentative nature of these kinds of projections, which leads me to a fifth fundamental element of long-range planning: a systematic procedure for obtaining and integrating feedback information and input data from other sources into the information base upon which these projections are made. It is especially critical to the speculative type of long-range planning (although, also important to the incremental type) that the projections be regarded as working positions, not as fixed facts, and that they be updated constantly in light of movement forward through time, experience, and new information. Without this corrective, adaptive feature, long-range planning would serve to restrict the freedom of the decision maker to choose among alternatives, and would have the same effect as an obsolete policy or practice which has long since outlived its usefulness but which has not been abandoned.

It is probably this capacity to trade outmoded decisions for new ones that is the essential value of the style of management thinking which we call long-range planning. The establishment of such a style of thinking is the sixth feature which I believe to be necessary for effective long-range planning. A frame of mind must be created on the part of the total staff of the organization, which is conducive to thinking in more comprehensive terms, to learning and applying more competent planning and analytical techniques, and to relating immediate decisions to long-range vision. I don't believe that good long-range planning can be done by one or two men in the organization. Unless a broad segment of the professional staff is involved in comprehensive, long-range planning, and has the skills necessary to perform in these ways, good planning isn't likely to take place to any significant degree.

By now you're probably thinking, "Yes, we agree that long-range planning is needed and desirable, but what can State departments of education do to put it into effect?" I'd like to share with you some of the things we've been doing in Texas that I feel are steps in this direction.

In the summer of 1965, the staff of the Texas Education Agency undertook a self-evaluation to determine present status and future needs and to clarify the Agency's mission. With this assessment as the basis, several project proposals under Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act were developed for the purpose of enlarging the Texas Education Agency's capacity to meet the educational needs of the State.

Under one of these proposals, an Office of Planning was established. In establishing this formal structure for planning, the Texas Education Agency had taken a major step toward long-range planning. Now the Agency had a special planning unit whose job it was to ensure that comprehensive, technically competent, and long-range planning could pervade Agency efforts. It is important to note that the Office was not established to do all the planning; it was established to stimulate and coordinate cooperative planning done by all divisions.

From the beginning, the Office of Planning had two major functions First, the Office was to coordinate the planning and evaluation activities of all Agency programs relating to instruction. Second, the Office of Planning was charged with providing leadership for developing change-oriented projects under ESEA Title III. This responsibility implied another: disseminating information to interested publics about the progress of Title III projects in Texas. If funds available under Title III were to be used as an instrument of desirable change in educational practice in the State, the results of its projects would need to become widely known. This led to a third responsibility: ensuring competent evaluation of each Title III project.

The first task of the newly created Office of Planning as it sought to bring about educational change was to establish machinery which would expand the formal planning structure into every program division of the Agency. A framework was needed which would give the professional staff who share common functions opportunities to think together in fruitful new ways. The design for Agency-wide coordination of instructional planning emerged.

The design provides for five types of planning groups, each with specific functions to fulfill. Three of these groups are upper echelon planning groups, each operating at a different level of management, which serve as general coordinating groups. These are the Commissioner's Coordinating Council, the Executive Planning Committee, and the Agency Planning Council. The design provides for two additional structures -- continuing committees and task force groups. These groups are specialty-oriented groups whose membership cuts across the Agency structure.

Major thrusts in Agency planning are indicated by a review of titles of just a few of the task force groups:

- Task Force on Regional Education Service Centers.

- Task Force for Development of a Unified Plan for Preschool Programs
- Task Force for Bilingual Education
- Task Force for Consolidating Federally-Assisted Programs as a Step Toward Comprehensive Planning
- Task Force for Educational Personnel Development

From its inception, the Office of Planning had seen the development of regional education service centers as one means of strengthening education and effecting educational change in Texas. Shortly after the Office was established, an Advisory Committee on Educational Innovation and Assessment, composed of educators from public schools and institutions of higher education and lay citizens was appointed to advise the Agency on methods of identifying and diffusing desirable educational change across the State. This group also saw regional centers as a partial answer. Staff from a number of Agency divisions were appointed to a task force to carry forward planning. Their efforts culminated in the implementation of twenty regional centers and establishment at the Agency of the Office of Education Service Centers under an Assistant Commissioner.

Having completed its work, the task force was disbanded. It had identified a series of needs, gathered information and proposed solutions, and decision-makers had acted on its recommendation. The planning group had completed its task of designing, and the operational responsibility was assigned to the newly established Office of Education Service Centers.

Through a concentrated effort this past year, our staff has developed a long-term project to assist local school district planners in moving toward comprehensive planning. An Agency task force developed a consolidated application through which a local school district applies for Federal funds from a number of different program sources. It's a new kind of application, one which focuses on program planning. It encourages the integration of isolated elements of the school program into a total educational system.

The consolidated approach encourages schools to begin priority planning for use of those Federal funds for which they are applying and to concentrate resources on areas of greatest need. With the consolidated application, schools can plan for available Federal funds in light of a total educational program, can consolidate the separate plans for using the funds into broad educational designs. Let me hasten to assure you that consolidation is not an attempt to move away from categorical aid. Rather, the consolidated application allows school districts to apply those funds to the objectives and purposes for which they are by law intended while coordinating them for most effective use.

An outgrowth of the consolidated application for Federal assistance, a pilot project in educational planning was initiated in the summer of 1968. As the first phase in a multi-year plan to enhance planning capability in local school districts, staff from the Agency and the regional education service centers are serving on teams to assist at least one pilot school in each of the State's 20 regional centers to move toward comprehensive planning. Emphasis in the pilot operation is on leadership activities which will result in models of effective local management -- models which can be replicated later in other school districts across the State. A major aim of the project is to broaden the vision of staff members of the Agency and upgrade their competence in assisting schools in educational planning.

With experience gained during this first year, the central leadership system -- the Agency and the service centers -- should be in a position in 1969-70, to extend the planning assistance to a larger group of schools within the State. By fiscal year 1971, it is anticipated that through the efforts of the Agency, regional centers, and local school districts in the pilot phases of the project, planning assistance will be within reach of all schools in the State.

Another outcome of planning, a statewide design for educational personnel development, like the development of the regional centers and the consolidated application, is both a product of planning and an instrument for further planning. Early in the development of the consolidated application, attention was focused on priority concerns in education in Texas.

These priority areas were identified on the basis of statewide data concerning the characteristics of pupil population and on the knowledge and experience of Agency staff members. School manpower development was seen as the core of all the priorities, and I think it is safe to say that it would be so in any State, regardless of other differences in the number, identity, and rank order of the priorities.

Consequently, after planning for the consolidated application was well under way, we next turned our attention to developing a design for educational personnel development, first seeking the advice of representatives from colleges and universities, our regional education service centers, local school districts, and professional organizations.

The design seeks to focus proposed programs on priorities for elementary and secondary educational personnel development, to encourage variation among projects, and to encourage cooperative action among and within local education agencies, colleges and universities, and education service centers in the development and conduct of personnel development programs. Our design serves as a framework for development of programs which will have high impact upon the competence of elementary and secondary personnel to perform at the level required to ensure high quality teaching-learning experiences.

In developing the statewide design for educational personnel development, we were concerned with the kind of teaching which would be needed to produce the education for tomorrow's world. We tried to make some predictions about the future. Then, we tried to develop a design for teacher inservice and preservice training which will meet the needs of the future as well as the needs of today.

Developing formalized projections for the future is probably the most difficult task that a State department of education undertakes. Most of us have traditionally been more comfortable with the past than we have with the future. We're tended to avoid the "day after tomorrow." But until we discipline ourselves to look ahead, we won't develop long-range planning.

As an outgrowth of our planning activities, especially our efforts to identify the major functions to be performed and to align staff resources accordingly, the structure of our Agency has undergone considerable change. As a result of our experience with planning, we began to see the need for assigning responsibility for management and coordination of certain important functions to newly established or modified divisions. For example, we created three new divisions within the Office of Planning: Assessment and Evaluation, Program Planning, and Dissemination.

Coordination of Agency-wide activities in inservice education for local school district staffs and management of the Agency's responsibilities for the administration of funds under the Education Professions Development Act and other sources of support for staff development are centered in the Educational Personnel Development unit.

Those functions having to do with review and approval of applications for Federal assistance and with monitoring of approved programs have been grouped together in the Program Funds Management Division. This consolidation of functions is in keeping with an emerging single unified concept of program planning and away from a fragmented, program-by-program approach.

As I mentioned before, one essential ingredient for long-range planning is an information system which provides dependable, relevant data. An Agency task force, with assistance from outside consultants, is presently engaged in designing a system that makes accessible information essential to assessment of needs, planning and evaluation of programs, control of fiscal procedures, and reporting to appropriate boards or agencies. When fully operational, the Management Information Center will constitute a basic support service for all planning activities in the Agency and will serve decision-makers at local, regional, State and Federal levels.

In the 2½ years in which the Texas Education Agency has worked toward developing its planning capability, we've become aware that the single key to success is people. We've confirmed what we've long known -- that some people are afraid to try new approaches because they're afraid of failure. We've also discovered that many people are too busy, too involved, to communicate adequately. They don't know -- perhaps don't want to know -- what others are doing. Little can be done to move toward long-range planning capability until resistance to the untried is overcome, until communication opens up so the broad view, the long view can prevail.

We can sum up our experience, then, by saying that development of planning capabilities must begin with staffing considerations. Until some decisions are made about structuring and directing the staff in such a way that the right environment for planning is created, there won't be much progress in developing effective long-range planning.

STATE STRUCTURE REORGANIZATION

Karl Hereford
Director, Program Planning and Evaluation
Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education
U.S. Office of Education

During the past several years I have had occasion to work with perhaps half of the State agencies in the country, and all of them seem to share one basic problem: The organizational framework of the State agency is designed to implement specific pieces of legislation. Such a rigid framework may be a requirement of State legislatures or of Federal programs for which States share a very significant administrative responsibility.

As all of us within the establishment know, whichever way one agency goes, the others tend to follow. When you look at the organization within the Office of Education, you'll find perhaps 80 different programs (27 of which are in the Bureau I represent), each with its own administrator, staff, and functions. Looking at the State agencies, interestingly enough, one finds the fragmented Federal structure replicated at the State level. So we have State Title I coordinators, Title II coordinators, Title III coordinators, etc.

This, in itself, is not a bad situation. But it does mean that the structure undergoes a great deal of pressure and tension when the agency, be it a State agency or a Federal agency, turns to the issues of comprehensive planning, assessment of needs, evaluation, and program development. Looking at what has happened in organizational terms, we find that each of these program units has tried to perform all management functions: Assessment of needs, development of the program strategy appropriate to a particular legislative enactment, development of comprehensive plans for that program, mounting of interesting program innovations, management of funds, right on through and including evaluation of the effects attributed to the program.

When we look just at the Federal action in elementary and secondary education, we find about 44 of these little structures hidden away in State agencies that are responsive to counterpart organizations in the Federal Government. What happens is a curious kind of overlapping of expenditure. For example, you may be interested to know that under ESEA Title I, there is as much money spent in the United States for the training and retraining of teachers as under all the enactments in EPDA. Between Title I and ESEA Title III, there are as many, if not more, research-and-development activities being funded as through the ESEA Title IV program. Though this may or may not be a problem, the interesting thing is that the projects funded under Titles I and III do not meet the same criteria for the same services as those which are funded under NDEA Title XI, EPDA, or Bureau of Research programs.

More specifically, this fragmentation in Federal funding and its replication in the structure within the Office of Education and the State agencies suggests that both the State agency and the Office are peculiarly unresponsive to the needs for comprehensive planning. In fact, the chief

State school officer finds himself boxed in. When he raises the question, "What is the impact of our total Federal or State effort in some program area?" he necessarily has to turn to a dozen or so different sources. Thus we find neither the State nor Federal agency equipped to do the job of assessing program needs comprehensively, developing program strategies to deal with these needs, formulating comprehensive plans to implement programs, building-in an innovative punch through Title III or other sources, and evaluating the impact of this total effort.

You can readily see the scope of the problem by taking a matrix with 44 pieces of legislation and having possibly five or six key management functions for each piece. That's 5 times 44, meaning that you need 220 top-rate individuals to fill those cells. In evaluation and planning, the best estimates are that State agencies need some 5,700 professionals. So we have not just an organizational problem but also a staffing problem. However, the fragmented organization in part creates an artificial kind of staffing problem.

It appears, then, that in the Federal and the State agencies, we should turn our attention to different forms of structure that enable us to be more responsive to the key management functions: Needs assessment, formulations of broad program strategies; development of comprehensive plans, evaluation, and identification of new programs to be implemented in certain local districts.

In the Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, we are considering a functional organization. One component would be totally responsible for the funds management function; another component would administer all State plan programs; and another unit would handle the discretionary authorities, including the 25 percent of ESEA Title III, the new bilingual and dropout programs, Follow Through, equal educational opportunity programs, and certain aspects of ESEA Title I. A single program planning, development, and evaluation component would serve all programs.

If this kind of structure and organization were adopted, a better coordinated data collection procedure could be implemented. Instead of 18 statistical reports, State agencies might be required to submit two or three or, possibly, even one. Instead of having 15 separate evaluation inventories, we might have one comprehensive evaluation instrument jointly designed by the State, local, and Federal agencies and thus make some estimate of the impact of these programs.

Although the discretionary programs pose a different kind of evaluation question from State plan programs, this procedure might have an interesting impact on the State agencies.

What I am suggesting, then, is that instead of counterparting across 44 programs, we might counterpart, it at all, in a fewer number of larger organizational units. Then when the chief State school officer, with his advisory council, considers assessment of needs in the State and the formulation of broad program strategies, he has a responsive administrative mechanism to treat these kinds of problems.

I want to cite two cases today because they are probably the most interesting statewide experiments that are now underway - those in Texas and in North Dakota.

The Texas Education Agency has begun to consolidate all application forms for local districts involving all State and Federal funds. That, in itself, isn't much since the volume of materials to be supplied by local districts is not greatly reduced from when they were submitting separate program applications. But there are these significant differences: First, each local district is now obliged to develop its own comprehensive program plan for the expenditure of all State and Federal funds. Then, if a district wishes to undertake a major program of inservice training for teachers, it may tap all of those sources providing for that activity, and may plan consistently for that thrust. Subsequently, it may attribute expenditures back to the several sources without restricting the training program to funding limitations under EPDA, or under Title I, or any other of several sources. The district can exercise tremendous discretion in selecting from several combinations of funding patterns in support of the comprehensive program plan. So this simple change in the application procedure initiated by the State agency puts the local districts in a more favorable position for comprehensive planning.

Second, the Texas agency is asking each local district to submit as an extension of its comprehensive program plan, a comprehensive plan of expenditure to show how it proposes to allocate its funds from the several sources to the conventional budgetary or accounting objects of expenditure. Third, the local district must submit a comprehensive funding plan showing attribution back to State and Federal sources.

Thus three unified submissions provide a comprehensive picture of what the local district proposes to do. This information can be aggregated at regional and State levels. And now Texas, for the first time, is in a position to know where all of these diverse funds are proposed to go and in support of what kinds of plans at the local level. This doesn't necessarily change the traditional relationships between the State and the local districts. But it does make the State more responsive to the need for comprehensive planning at the local district level.

Texas has 1,210 local districts ranging from small districts to some of the larger ones in the Nation. Each of these districts has submitted its plans, all 1,210 have been processed, and the pressure on the State agency's organization is immense. What would you do with a comprehensive plan that came in from Houston? How do you judge the integrity of that plan? Do you send it to the Title I shop, the Title II shop, and what have you? Well, New York does that. For example, when a Title I application comes to the State agency, there are 17 different forms to be filled out before final approval.

Texas has tried to avoid sending these comprehensive plans through the conventional Federal coordinator-administered programs. Both fiscal and program officers, regardless of location in that State agency, were formed into plan-review teams. As I recall, they worked in teams of two, providing both a program and fiscal sign-off.

As a result of this activity, the Texas agency will likely have to re-examine its current organization, which will not effectively and efficiently support this kind of operation. It will be very interesting to see how they approach the problems of reorganization, and whether they will proceed along functional lines perhaps with a component designed essentially for the functions of assessment, strategy-building, and evaluation. This might well be an independent council or a State-supported foundation. There might be a program development/dissemination component and a funds management operation. A technical assistance component might work with the 1,210 local districts through their regional structure to begin to get the substantive, qualitative input into comprehensive planning.

This, then, is one kind of approach where a State agency simply took the initiative and used the application procedure to effect a whole new set of relationships with local districts. It will be interesting to see where they are a year from now.

The North Dakota situation was quite different from Texas. By population, you can put North Dakota in the city of Dallas, but that small State probably has undertaken something unparalleled among other States. There, comprehensive program planning took place on a State basis and preceded any attempts to alter Federal and State funding patterns.

The situation there is not new to you. North Dakota is an underpopulated State; it is losing population; college and university graduates are leaving the State (The University of North Dakota loses about 60 percent of its graduates every year, particularly in the field of education and, of those who remain, about 90 percent go into one school district.); youth are leaving the farms. Despite the fact that it appears rural and isolated, the State is very rapidly becoming urbanized.

However, despite the changes in sociology, the organizational pattern for education has remained appropriate for the year 1900. There are still 524 school districts for just 175,000 children. That is not an unusual thing; Texas still has 1,210. The average-size high school enrolls fewer than 90 pupils. Over half of the elementary school teachers do not have a college degree and that is a source of concern.

About 12 years ago, legislation required every high school teacher to hold a degree before she could be certified and, for all practical purposes, every high school teacher is certificated. But, at the elementary level, about 59 percent of the teachers are non-degree holders and, worse still, these people are concentrated in certain kinds of districts, principally in the small 12-grade districts with small high schools of from 45 to 125 students. In looking at the progress of these teachers toward qualifying themselves, it was estimated that the present teacher force in service would require from 20 to 30 years to qualify for college degrees at the present rate.

There also was considerable concern that the present pattern of State support was reinforcing this condition. In essence, it was rewarding it. When the State aid formula was applied, it tended to reward the small inefficient district.

Up to this point, you could have made comparable statements about Nebraska or Iowa or Michigan in 1920. This conventional organization-finance-personnel condition is familiar. The interesting thing is that North Dakota attacked this problem differently.

The initiative came from the legislature. The Legislative Research Committee was tempted as early as 1965 to mandate reorganization, placing every child in a 12-grade district. They were not satisfied that the State aid program was really equalizing educational opportunity, and they were, of course, concerned about the lack of a quality and assessment basis. However, they were dissuaded from taking legislative action pending a full assessment of needs in the State.

The Committee turned to the State education agency and made this kind of a proposal: We will put up $20,000 if you will match it and work out an arrangement with particular personnel at the University of North Dakota to undertake basic data compilation and assessment of needs and give us some strategies to consider. Thus the sponsors became the Legislative Research Committee, the State Department of Public Instruction, and the University of North Dakota.

I am not advocating the procedure. I want to talk about the results because their procedure was appropriate to the time and apparently was politically sound; but, it certainly is not one that would necessarily work anywhere else.

The team looked at conditions in the State. First, there were under-educated teachers in large numbers. They could have mounted a crash inservice education program, but they also observed that the kids in certain schools were underachieving in relation to youngsters in other schools. This was attributed to the quality of instruction, while recognizing the urban-rural bias in tests. They observed that the manner in which funds were distributed tended to reinforce an undesirable condition. And they observed that the types of teacher training taking place might be appropriate for Grand Forks, but not for Zap.

The study team could have concluded that it takes more dollars to produce more of the same. Rather they did something quite different and interesting. First, they studied intensively the requirements for organization, for finance, for personnel development, for curriculum reform, and for schemes of getting some kind of innovative punch into the schools in North Dakota. How could they bring about needed changes in a way relevant to the changing sociology in the State, that would produce effective use of funds and would not work an inequity on any class of taxpayers.

They established a whole set of very interesting requirements for their recommendations, and here's about the way they came out. First, they determined that North Dakota was no longer a State in which people characteristically were geographically isolated. About 90 percent of the pupils lived within commuting distance of a high school that already enrolled 150 kids. So the notion that you could not reorganize administrative and attendance units was just a myth.

Having made that determination, they could have stopped and recommended a reorganization. But they figured that because of the rural/urban split, mandatory reorganization wouldn't solve all their problems. They decided that the finance system should reward the desired behavior and just fail to reward the present system.

So they invented a new method for distributing funds. First, the principle was established that the State and the local district should share, roughly 50-50, the normal recurring costs of education. But that all extraordinary costs -- capital construction; debt service for previous construction; transportation; special services for isolated kids and the disadvantaged, all those populations within the State that required an extraordinary investment to equalize education performance -- should be borne by the broadest tax structure, the State, not the local district.

The proposal, then, was to transfer to the State over a period of years all the extraordinary expenses, but the distribution of funds back to the local districts would be conditioned on two strengths. First, only minimally organized 12-grade districts could participate, namely those districts that could support an accredited high school enrolling at least 215 kids; and second, funds would be prorated in proportion to the number of qualified personnel in that district.

Now, West Virginia had taken a similar approach years before by prorating funds proportionate with personnel. But it didn't do the next thing; that is, how on earth would these districts, even if they wanted to, get qualified personnel? The graduates are leaving the State; there's a high turnover among the younger, abler teachers. At this point, they turned to the University of North Dakota and said, Is there any way that we can (1) train fully qualified teachers to replace the present non-degree force, (2) add the substantial new teachers that will be required in the next several years, (3) keep these people on the job, and (4) at the same time bring an innovative component to our schools?

The conventional response would have been: We'll set up some regional service centers here, and we'll offer off-campus courses, and we'll tie the State college system in here, and we'll certify every teacher here within five years by teaching more education courses. But, fortunately, there were enough of these teachers, over 2,500, to make a more dramatic response possible and justifiable; and most of these teachers lacked not just professional education courses, but liberal arts work, which you can't deliver off-campus too easily.

Also the study team was pretty well convinced that the present kind of teacher education would not produce a different kind of teacher with sufficient challenge to hold young people on the job. So, they decided to invent a new kind of teacher education program. The problem was: How could you get a new kind of teacher education program in a conventional university. They did something that no other institution in this country has ever done. They created a new college. This college, by unanimous action of its graduate council, is free of all academic requirements of that University for the next ten years. That's in Grand Forks, North Dakota, 1968. It is now staffed, on-going, and has a new dean.

This new college is a School of Behavioral Studies in Education. The program starts at the junior year and goes through the fifth year. Bachelor degrees may be awarded to a fourth-year person, but basically, that person starts as a junior. He is engaged in a study program of behavioral sciences and in the third year completes what would be equivalent to behavioral science humanity courses. The fourth-year students participate in a standard kind of internship in a key local district.

But their fifth year is spent in residence in one of the cooperating local schools. Here, their purpose is to introduce innovative programs into that school, and they are given credit for this experience. They are not trained as individuals but as instructional teams, and are assigned to the schools as instructional teams. If they choose, they may try to improve the school program by introducing new materials, changing the instructional system, and the like.

North Dakota will endeavor to qualify 300 people a year at the fifth-year level starting this year. At the same time, professors from the other State colleges will be recruited to replicate the program so that the total output may be as many as 1,200 new teachers, ultimately to reach a total of 2,500 or so within 7 years.

This strategy is devised to accomplish several things: (1) to put an extensive behavioral science component into teacher training; (2) to help the State colleges to come to grips with a major personnel problem on a statewide basis; and (3) to shift a substantial part of the training from the University campus to local districts, getting these districts involved in teacher preparation.

The University of North Dakota is presently working with a limited number of districts on this kind of clinic-school basis. Eventually one or more clinical professors will be working with cooperative school clinics in approximately seven regional service areas. State agency personnel will assist the local districts with such technical problems as reorganization, implementation of the proposed new foundation program, comprehensive planning, development of shared services, and reaching the 10 percent of youngsters who still live in isolated areas.

The North Dakota plan can be fully carried out only as people see it as a better alternative. Though substantial parts of the program have been implemented, the plan is just a plan. (Six publications describing the plan are available from the State Department of Public Instruction, and I would urge you to take a look at them.)

Trying to get plan implementation is a political problem. It depends on how far the legislature will go; it depends on how much initiative a State agency can take; it depends on the ability of the University of North Dakota to work with the cooperating State colleges. In this sense, everything mitigates against this kind of plan implementation, because traditionally, each agency goes its own way.

The political strategy for implementation was to begin with the University of North Dakota so that the University's reputation and prestige would lend support to the rest of the plan. Then the State senators and other representatives came to the Office of Education in August, 1967. They said: We don't need new money so much as the authority to spend in a little different way the money that is already coming into the State. We would like to string separate program funds together in a package to support the central direction of the comprehensive plan.

The Commissioner of Education lacked authority to do that; so here's how they handled funding. They requested and received an EPDA grant of direct assistance to the University of North Dakota with a few fellowships. Then in their contracts with the local cooperating districts, they arranged for the salary to follow the local non-degree teacher who entered the program at level three, four, or five, depending upon her prior training. Roughly, $1,200 to $1,500 was taken off the top for the direct cost of the program; the rest was provided in the form of a tax-free fellowship to that teacher, who really didn't lose any money. At the initiative of the cooperating local districts, ESEA Title III funds were to support the participation of the clinical professors in the regions and to provide the developmental capital in support of instructional teams. ESEA Title I funds, coupled with EPDA fellowships, were used to pay for the fifth-year instructional teams installed in the cooperating districts.

Of a roughly $6-million investment, only $800,000 is new money. The rest represents a redirection of the Federal expenditures already available. In the transition, competition can be expected between on-going projects, particularly in ESEA Title III, and those that are proposed. Obviously, the State and the districts will have to negotiate these problems.

But I think the principle is very clear. In this case, there was an internally consistent comprehensive plan worked out on a State basis. And the Federal and State expenditures then were altered precisely to implement that plan. This is the converse of the Texas approach where the fragmentation of Federal and State assistance is being consolidated to stimulate comprehensive educational planning at the local level.

* * *

SUMMARY OF GROUP DISCUSSION

In response to numerous questions about the North Dakota plan, Dr. Hereford stated that the State Department of Public Instruction is seeking legislative authority to use a percentage of State aid funds for indirect expenses, i.e., administration. The State was unable to consider eligible for ESEA Title I funds those children who do not have adequately trained teachers, although the children are obviously academically "disadvantaged," some having never had a teacher who holds a degree. Also, the proposal called for the replacement rather than addition of classroom teachers. Therefore, it proved impossible for the statewide plan to be backed as substantially through ESEA Title I funds as had been projected. In Mississippi, economic factors have permitted a similar approach to coordinated funding for teacher retraining using ESEA Title I funds and funds under the Educational Professions Development Act (EPDA).

In North Dakota, the first clinical team has been established with ESEA Title III funds. However, the recent squeeze on such funds has restricted broad implementation. The first students enrolled at the University of North Dakota's New School of Behavioral Studies in Education this past summer and will continue in residence throughout this academic year. Additional information about the program may be obtained from Dr. Vito Perrone, Director, New School, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, North Dakota 58201.

Dr. Hereford suggested that the concerns of State advisory councils might be broader than Title III. He feels that the councils, for example, may be in a better position to undertake more credible needs assessment and evaluation than the State educational agencies themselves. These groups might also strengthen policy planning and the development of broad program strategies.

The assumption of new responsibilities, such as the use of discretionary funds, is prompting some change in the structure of State educational agencies as the need for making new kinds of decisions requires new kinds of units. Examples include States like West Virginia, where program planning and evaluation components with agency-wide responsibilities are being formed. Shifts away from organization by program will allow more professional handling of such pervasive administrative functions as funds management, program development, assistance to local education agencies, data collection, and evaluation. Entrenchment of personnel was suggested as a barrier to change. Also, some regulatory functions of State agencies may no longer be relevant.

EVALUATION

Patrick F. Toole
Assistant Director for Curriculum Development
Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction

Although ESEA Title III funds have been labeled "adventure" or "risk" money, the label does not absolve the U. S. Office of Education or State educational agencies from exercising prudence and good-management sense in the monitoring of PACE activities.

For purposes of this presentation on Pennsylvania's present emphases and on some planned, future emphases, project-program merit is assumed; otherwise, the original decision to fund the PACE project would have to be questioned. Obviously, such decisions should be (and have been) questioned -- not only in Pennsylvania and in other States with whose activities I am reasonably familiar, but in States throughout the Nation as well. The initial focus of this presentation, however, is not Monday-morning quarter-backing the grant-award decision. Rather, the focus is on one State's attempt to evaluate systematically, whether or not funded project goals and objectives are being met (whether they be calendar objectives, program objectives, staff-acquisition objectives, fiscal objectives, or what) and on Pennsylvania's PACE evaluation plans for the future.

Present evaluation activity revolves around annual, on-site visits to each of Pennsylvania's funded PACE projects by a team of competent and experienced educators for two or three days. Originally modeled after the Middle States Association school, college, and university evaluation teams, the visiting teams examine project activity in relation to the original project objectives for which the grant-award was made and in relation to a prior-to-visit self-study undertaken by the project director in consultation with the chief school officer of the applicant district or agency, and the project staff. Affirmation of congruency or notation of discrepancy between the on-site team's perception of activity toward (or achievement of) the project goals and objectives and the self-study reported activity is the basis of the team's report. *Copies of the report are given* to the project director, the chief school officer (legal officer) of the applicant district, the Pennsylvania PACE desk in the U. S. Office of Education, and the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction. Although the on-site evaluation team's report serves a primary purpose in assisting the Department of Public Instruction to arrive at decisions concerning continuation of funding recommendations, a more important purpose is providing direction to the project applicant and director for improving the quality of the PACE project.

Pennsylvania's on-site PACE evaluations are now a year old. The first one of the 80 to 85 evaluations completed during this past year was undertaken during October, 1967, after approximately a year of planning and preparation. Since on-site team expenses and stipends have come from grant-award funds and since no on-site team visit would take place sooner than six months after the grant-award date, or later than 90 days before grant-award termination, budgetary provisions had to be included in the project budgets.

This was done during the initial grant-award or during the continuation grant negotiating sessions with the applicant and the Office of Education's contracts office. Consequently, the first preparations for the evaluation cycle begun in October of 1967, were made in late winter of 1967.

From a small cadre of approximately two-dozen highly respected Pennsylvania educators who had functioned as independent readers of submitted proposals since PACE's operational inception in November, 1965, the on-site team-membership pool has grown to approximately 225 chief school officers, public-school classroom teachers, university instructors, PACE project directors, principals, curriculum directors, associate and assistant superintendents, university heads-of-departments, etc. At present, all on-site team members are Pennsylvanians although consideration is being given to including outstanding educators from nearby States in the membership pool. Travel expenses, which come from the applicant's grant-award, have been the only serious constraint to out-of-State participation.

Initially projected to cost approximately $675 per on-site visit (the chairman of the team who writes the report in consultation with the team members receives $100 per day stipend, the team members $50 per day, plus State-allowable expenses at State rates), the actual costs of the visits have averaged $900 for the 80-85 conducted thus far. The reason for this is that some PACE activity in Pennsylvania is multi-faceted, requiring either larger teams or a combination of teams, one for each single facet of a complex project.

Two trade-offs, not unanticipated, have been repeatedly observed by John Resetar, the Department staff member who is responsible for arranging the on-site team visits. The first trade-off is that team members become dissemination agents. The second is that on-site visits are recognized less as a threat, more as an opportunity for assistance (and recognition) by most project directors.

The first trade-off is understandable. With only 600-700 separate school districts in the State, about 100 separate PACE projects still underway (the peak number was 154 -- cumulatively, not concurrently funded), and 225 on-site team members visiting one or more projects every calendar year, word about unusual project activity does get around. Team members become carriers of PACE information -- either back to their own districts, projects, or schools, or to other districts. Some team members have looked upon the experience of visiting PACE projects as sufficient reward in itself for services rendered and have accepted only out-of-pocket expense reimbursement rather than stipends. For an educator who wishes to stay on the "cutting edge," membership in the on-site visitors' pool can be invaluable.

Helping bring about the second trade-off is PACE project-director membership in the on-site team. Directors selected for the pool are generally recognized as being among the more successful in the State. Their experience and the assistance which they can and do provide during and after the visit can also be invaluable to the director of the project being visited. A few excerpts from letters received from project directors in anticipation of this presentation are illustrative.

A special education project director wrote: "I would like to state that I was very impressed and pleased by the team that evaluated our Title III project. They were most helpful and gave some very good suggestions and recommendations..."

Another director, from a cultural center project, wrote: "We were fortunate in having an excellent evaluation team with varied educational backgrounds. The team worked diligently for three days, evaluating us fairly on the basis of what it observed. We are certain that (re) funding of our project would not have occurred without a proper evaluation, since this was the only direct contact group to visit us to this time from the State or Federal level... The evaluation did us a great deal of good during our self inspection (self-study) of our goals and their attainment."

A director of a "learning-intensification" project who was both an evaluator and the subject of an evaluation wrote: "It goes without saying that those of us who have participated in the evaluation of Federal projects have found it necessary to be flexible and anticipatory. Often changes occurred which created strain on the efforts made to reach goals... However, the anticipatory concern causes the staff of these projects to prepare and/or discuss the main alternatives that may occur with their concomitant consequences. We in ----- County have greatly appreciated the opportunity to be one of the first Title III projects evaluated last year."

An "adaptive physical-education" project director wrote: "I believe the evaluation team that visited our project provided many positive comments from their observations. (That by itself) was a beneficial experience for our staff."

An "outdoor-education" project director wrote: "The evaluators who visited the project from the Department of Public Instruction were excellent. The team impressed the staff with their willingness to give constructive criticism. They were most thorough and did much to broaden the perspective of the staff. Many of the suggestions for the overall program have been incorporated for the coming year."

An ETV demonstration-project director "found the team members courteous, understanding, and very helpful in their comments. We believe their written report was a fair evaluation of the project."

A director of a project for an isolated rural region noted that a "Visiting Team Evaluation is a 'two-way' street. Values accrue to the project but other values result from the presence in the district of persons from other parts of the State....an important aspect in the process of dissemination....After our last project evaluation, one of the 'Visiting Team' members (said:) 'I intend to go back home and urge some of our district to do many of the things that you have found possible to do here in your Region.'"

A superintendent and PACE project director of a nongraded, individualized-instruction project in a "small school district in a disadvantaged community" both wrote: "Another plus for this program was the on-site evaluation team which visited last winter. These people saw the program in action and were most helpful in their suggestions. This kind of evaluation also served as a motivating device for the teachers, who had not been accustomed to having their professional work viewed or evaluated by personnel outside the school."

So much for the "dissemination" and "visiting-team assistance" trade-offs. Many other written complimentary comments about the value of the visiting team to the project being assessed have been received, but space does not permit a complete listing of all of them -- or of any one of them in toto. It is sufficient to note that of more than 50 responses received, none questioned the need per se for on-site evaluations although some smaller projects objected to a team of three members for three days. Perhaps one of the most cogent project-director commentaries received was a suggestion that we (the Department of Public Instruction and the PACE projects) should keep the "evaluations...as flexible and as innovative as the Title III projects themselves...and that we not endorse any particular evaluation models."

The modus operandi of Pennsylvania's PACE evaluation seems to be susceptible to this plea. The focus of the on-site visit is the project's self-study, which relates the project-staff's perception of movement toward, or achievement of goals and objectives. The two or three days provided for the on-site visit give ample time for discussion, for give and take, and for a mutual examination of views in all but the very largest or most complex projects. Additionally, there is further opportunity to review and to discuss the report after it has been prepared. Indeed, the on-site report received 90 days before grant-award termination is not used by the Department of Public Instruction as a terminal judgment. It only marks the beginning of negotiated modifications based on team recommendations and aimed toward a more viable implementation of the funded project -- all this during the continuation-grant negotiation session. Of course, if project failure is demonstrably evident, not only in the on-site visitation report, but also in Departmental follow-up studies, then alternatives to funding the continuation under Title III can be sought. These alternatives do not preclude project continuance under other fund sources, local-district funding as an example, on a test basis to further assess project viability without additional PACE commitments.

Obviously, not all on-site report recommendations can be or are honored. Some, for example, concerning increased funds for certain project activities are beyond the Department of Public Instruction's control in this period of Congressional fiscal retrenchment. Other recommendations, after careful scrutiny of the applicant's counterarguments or appeal, are assessed as being unrealistic in the "interaction-frame of reference" which the on-site team did not have any opportunity to fully comprehend in three short visitation days.

But all this recitation refers largely to ex post facto activity. What about Pennsylvania's plans for future PACE evaluations that may be more oriented toward activity before, rather than after the fact of funding a PACE project?

Pennsylvania's plans for future PACE evaluations will continue to revolve around the on-site visitations. As the State gained experience during the past year, some modifications -- not only in the format, but also in the procedures -- have been made. For example, some of Pennsylvania's PACE activity has become summertime activity only. Consequently, the "no-sooner-than-six-months-after-the-project's-start" scheduling of a visit is completely inapplicable here. Another change has been made in the team size and the number of days spent on-site. A very small project, ranging from $10,000 to $35-40,000 in grant-award size, may only have two team members for a one- or two-day visit. Correspondingly, larger projects, as has been previously noted, have required and will continue to require larger or combination teams and, perhaps, a longer period of time for on-site visits.

Pennsylvania's most ambitious undertaking relative to PACE evaluation revolves around its use of fiscal 1968 administrative money received last April 25, just before the Bureau of the Budget imposed a "freeze" on Federal fiscal 1968 expenditures. Pennsylvania was one of the few States -- perhaps the only State -- to claim and to use fully its fiscal 1968 administrative override.

Fiscal 1968 funds were used for six subcontracts. All six subcontracts revolve around three of five possible PACE subcontract tasks formulated in late February and early March of this year and based on Public Law 90-247's requirements for State administration. The three PACE tasks subcontracted are needs assessment, micro- and macro-evaluation, and dissemination. Not funded at this time are two other possible tasks -- change strategies and PACE administration.

Scheduled for completion by December 31, 1968, the fiscal 1968 subcontract activity will provide a rationale and a process for building into the project evaluation component during its planning and development stage the following:

1. Critical-needs focus for proposed program activity,

2. Modern management and planning techniques for proposed design and development,

3. Specification of proposed program activities in manifestly observable and measurable terms, and

4. Definition of achievement criteria upon which future determinations of project success will be based.

In addition to the rationale and process development, a series of workshops will be held -- first for present PACE directors and State or regional administrators, ultimately for would-be PACE applicants when additional program funds become available and permit the funding of new projects in Pennsylvania.

The emphases of needs assessment and evaluation subcontracts are on pre-project funding or pre-continuation funding, yet the emphases are critically important to PACE process and terminal evaluation as can readily be seen. The subcontracted activity should complement and not detract from Pennsylvania's present on-site visitations. At the same time, the subcontract activities and the on-site visit format tend to cluster more toward the "process"-end of the evaluation continuum rather than the "model"-end. Hopefully, and as a result of the process emphasis, the previously noted "flexibility and innovative" concern raised by a Pennsylvania regional project director will be allayed.

Interestingly, an extremely innovative technique being used by one subcontractor, the Institute for the Study of Inquiring Systems, in its needs-assessment contract seems to have some intriguing evaluation applications not only to PACE, but to general educational problems as well. Developed for marketing research and called MAPP (Mathematical Analysis of Perceptions and Preferences), the technique involves the use of photographs as stimuli to elicit non-verbal responses relative to various audiences' perceptions of needs priorities and their preferences as to which needs might be met first. Four states -- Delaware, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania -- have just completed a "Feasibility Study of the Application of MAPP to ESEA Title III Decision Making." I had an opportunity to be involved in this study and am fascinated by its implications. If you are interested in the needs-assessment outcomes, may I suggest you contact Dr. Paul Campbell, the director of the Department of Public Instruction's Bureau for Quality Education Assessment. The report should be available early next year. If you are interested in the "PACE decision-making" study, Dr. Norman Kurland's office in Albany may be able to help you later this month -- or you may want to write directly to Michael H. Halbert in Philadelphia. I may be wrong, and I have been wrong before, but I think we may be hearing much more about other educational applications of the MAPP technique in the near future.

* * *

SUMMARY OF GROUP DISCUSSION

Mr. Toole elaborated on the self-study and on-site visit techniques used in Pennsylvania and the results of this approach to evaluation. For example, at least one summer program was replicated because another project director saw it in action. Also, defining behavioral objectives has markedly increased as project directors have gained familiarity with this process through on-site visits. Comparison of the self-study and on-site visit reports indicates to the State staff the accuracy of the projects directors' perceptions. Separate efforts are also being made through workshops and distribution of packets of printed material to train project directors in the techniques of evaluation.

Continuation of funding is not completely dependent upon the on-site visit. Members of the State advisory council do not participate in evaluative visit. Their role has been to contract for a macro-evaluation under which an independent look is taken at the on-site visit reports and a determination is made concerning their applicability to the State's responsibility in presenting evaluative data to the U.S. Commission of Education.

STATE DISSEMINATION STRATEGIES

Norman Kurland
Director, Center on Innovation
New York State Education Department

I thought of sub-titling my presentation "Not Another Newsletter." I don't know how many newsletters and new publications supposedly disseminating information I have received in the last couple of months, but the pile is getting higher and higher, and I am getting fewer and fewer of them read as the number increases. Since this is a widespread problem, I would like to suggest some other ways of dealing with the problem of dissemination of innovations, using the dissemination plans of the Center on Innovation, New York State Education Department as my example. I guess one of our chief claims to fame is going to be that we are the only center that doesn't put out a newsletter.

We have two basic objectives for our Title III dissemination system. The first objective is to get educational information into an "available-when-needed" system and to train educators to use that system. One of the major problems with dissemination is that a lot of material, a lot of information, gets generated and broadcast out across the educational community, but apparently everybody has the experience I just described of letting a lot of it just pile up. Then when you want information on a specific topic, you can't find it and have to rely on a very informal source of information to get anything helpful. That kind of searching may turn up some information, but it doesn't exhaust the possibility of information on your particular need.

Our second basic objective is to disseminate a limited amount of significant information about evaluated activities to specific audiences. One kind of specific information we will disseminate will be the progress of the Title III program as a whole and of individual Title III projects; we will disseminate this information to key decision makers at the State, Federal, and local levels. And we will disseminate information on projects dealing with significant needs of general concern.

As part of our formal stucture for administering Title III and for achieving the general aims of educational innovation in New York State, we sponsored 16 regional centers which cover almost all of New York State; among their functions is that of evaluation and dissemination. These centers will serve as the key links in our statewide network for the dissemination of information on educational innovation. With the new administrative Title III funds, we will establish a dissemination unit at the State level which will work in conjunction with the regional centers to supply information dissemination services to all schools in the State.

The Information-Dissemination Unit will have as its primary objectives: to promote effective dissemination of information on successful educational innovations, to provide ready access to information relative to educational innovation, and to provide information about on-going Title III projects for program management purposes at the State and Federal levels.

During its first year of operation, the Unit will first survey the existing dissemination capabilities and activities of our present regional centers, the Boards of Cooperative Educational Services, school districts, colleges and universities, school study councils, other units of the State Department of Education, the U.S. Office of Education, and other appropriate agencies. We want to be sure we know what is being done so that we can provide an appropriate linkage among all of these agencies. On the basis of the results of this survey, the Unit will design a dissemination network and information bank system to complete the linkages among the elements and to supply whatever may be missing in order to develop a total information system for New York State.

We also plan to disseminate on a broad scale information about innovative projects that have been deemed effective after careful evaluation. Information on Title III projects and other innovative projects that seem to be effective in meeting critical educational needs will be disseminated on a statewide basis. In order to help us identify these projects, we have sent out a nomination form all across the State, asking anybody who knows of a project that he thinks should be spotlighted to indicate why he thinks this is an important project and what the basis of his judgment is. After screening these nominations and selecting a small number of projects, we will disseminate information about these projects, not only to make people aware of them, but to stimulate people to adopt them as well.

We also have some notions about methods of fostering adoption, using perhaps some of the Title III funds. For instance, when a particular program or project has been identified as one that ought to be widely adopted in the State, we might try to identify the initial costs or adoption costs of the project and distinguish those costs from the operating costs. We could then inform the school districts that if they are interested in adopting this particular idea or practice and are willing to pay the operating costs, we will help them with the adoption costs. This assistance could include funds for training, for purchase of basic equipment, for new materials, and the like.

Development of an engineering manual for innovations is another of our activities. Our research division is working with two or three successful projects to prepare a how-to-do-it manual, a description of what it takes to actually put into practice a proven innovation.

We agree with Lou Rubin that the most effective dissemination can come from people who have been involved in a project and who are enthusiastic about it. Therefore, we are thinking of using some of our dissemination money to pay the expenses of people who have helped operate a successful project to travel around the State telling others about their project. These people would act as salesmen of something that the communities and the school districts want and need; they would help people understand what the innovation is all about and how to adopt it. These "salesmen" would be available as a resource to school districts that are interested in adopting a particular practice.

Another activity we are going to undertake this year is to assist our regional centers and other appropriate agencies in the establishment of information centers at the local or regional levels to serve area needs. These centers would be an integral part of our State information network.

Finally, we plan to establish this year a management information system to meet our management needs for Title III and to give us a basis for determining on a continuing basis what aspects of Title III and other innovative programs are functioning well, and which are not, in helping us assess State needs, a very important facet of the Title III program.

Through these activities, we are trying to develop a dissemination system which will be both a source of information and a generator of important and significant information about educational innovation. If we feel that there is something developing in education that we think should be widely known, we want to be sure that the information gets out. We also want to be sure that anything anyone might need to know in order to solve an educational problem is available to him. Otherwise, people will have to continue to rely on the memories of individuals to know that there is a project in California that deals with a particular thing in which they are interested, and that somebody at a particular conference is from a university that is doing research on a specific problem with which they are concerned. We would like to have a system where anybody who has a problem in the field of education can go to a local center and find professionals who can help search the entire bank of information available to the center, in order to determine whether there are projects or research activities which would be relevant to his need, and to supply that information to the individual in a form that he can use and in a quantity that is appropriate to his particular need.

* * *

SUMMARY OF GROUP DISCUSSION

Much of the discussion concerned the Educational Resource Information Center (ERIC), a nationwide information service under the auspices of the U.S. Office of Education. Dr. Lee Burchinal, Director of the Division of Information Technology and Dissemination, USOE, led the disscussion. Dr. Burchinal discussed the organization and purposes of ERIC and its services for educators in all fields. Through its network of specialized centers or clearinghouses, ERIC collects and disseminates current information on innovative programs and educational research in a great variety of educational areas; for example, one ERIC clearinghouse is concerned with exceptional children, and another is concerned with vocational and technical education.

Since ERIC is selective, much material of local and State interest will not be included in the system; therefore, an interconnected regional, State, and local information-dissemination network is very important. Both an information specialist and a librarian would be needed as part of the staff of such a network.

The group also discussed the idea of helping local school districts with the installation costs of adopting an innovative idea or practice. An open-ended system of application could be used, whereby a school district could apply for adoption funds to install any project or certain types of projects could be specified on the basis of statewide educational needs.

The role of the State educational agency in developing good Title III project proposals was also discussed. If a local school district wants to develop a project in a specific area, the SEA could provide that district with a selective bibliography of information in that area and some seed money to develop the idea. In this way, the State would not only be helping districts who haven't succeeded in developing acceptable project proposals, but also would be using information in a way which would foster more rational decision-making at the local level.

Also discussed was the importance of having one or more people at the State level clearly designated as disseminators; other agencies and organizations could then direct their information to these people and provide training for them. It would then be the State dissemination staff's responsibility to transmit this information to the local school districts and to aid in training appropriate staff members on the local level.

PRIVATE SCHOOL RELATIONS

Edward R. D'Alessio
Coordinator, Governmental Programs
United States Catholic Conference

The Catholic school community in the United States has approached Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act with confidence; the response of the Division of Elementary and Secondary Education, United States Catholic Conference has been positive. But Title III data, however fragmentary, uncomparable, and yet to be seriously analyzed, does not seem to support either posture.

Returns from a United States Catholic Conference ESEA survey of 100 dioceses in the spring of 1966 indicated that 66 dioceses were involved in programs funded under Title III, 84 in Title I, and 88 in Title II.

Results of a National Catholic Educational Association survey indicated that 1,029 or 17.9 percent of the 5,754 (of 10,322) Catholic elementary school principals who responded had at least some students participating in Title III projects during the 1967-1968 school year; 82.1 percent said that their schools were not participating. Even more interesting is the fact that even though about the same percentage, 17.5 percent, expects to participate during the current school year, 67.3 percent of the principals did not expect to participate and 15.2 percent were "not sure." Additionally, 286 or 19.3 percent of the 1,483 (of 2,293) Catholic secondary school principals who responded had at least some students participating in Title III projects; 70.5 percent do not anticipate participating this year. Ten percent were "not sure."

A recent survey of 39 (of 79) diocesan, State Catholic conference, and religious community coordinators of governmental programs conducted by the USCC Division of Elementary and Secondary Education included three pivotal questions about Catholic school involvement in Title III projects: major benefits derived from participation in Title III projects, problems hindering participation in Title III projects, and methods of improving nonpublic school participation in Title III projects. Some representative responses follow:

Benefits

"With the exception of two or three programs, nonpublic school children have not derived a great deal of benefit from Title III programs."

"Opportunity for Catholic schools to become acquainted with and involved in research and innovations...."

"Not as many as people would want us to believe."

More specifically, aspects cited as beneficial included cultural activities; teacher-produced audio-visual materials; psychological, guidance, therapy, remedial reading, and data computer services; science teacher improvement; guidance workshop and consultant services; active participation in drama; teacher preparation and inservice training; availability of published materials about the State; trips to museums and planitariums and itinerant teachers.

Problems

"Public schools do not include nonpublic administration in planning. State prohibition. Non-involvement attitude of diocesan administration."

"Very few of the Title III programs ... have touched down on the children ... When the Title III Office discontinues funding a program, we cannot afford to pick up the cost of continued participation."

"Concern on part of public school officials with only public school needs and problems."

"Programs are geared to the needs of public schools."

"Failure of SEA to review projects thoroughly enough to determine whether nonpublic school children are included."

More specifically, problems cited included transportation, distance, administrative overload, the Regulations, and dissemination.

Methods of Improving Participation

"Our evaluation of Title III projects is good to excellent and substantially better than Title I projects."

"The nonpublic schools should be allowed to submit independent Title III proposals through the LEA."

"Our children could use the ... facilities of ... Title III but it costs one dollar per pupil for any school that wishes to use the films."

"Re-emphasize need to involve nonpublic schools in planning projects."

"Less State control."

"Through the development of a total special education program fully integrated in the parochial schools."

"Immediate contact with the public school system to let them know our needs in this city."

"Employment of a full time diocesan coordinator."

"Need for clarifying in the Regulations the matter of equitable participation."

More specifically, suggested methods of improving participation included more imaginative projects, establishing a model school, regional workshops, and newsletters.

A U. S. Office of Education analysis of 294 operational Title III projects indicated that 1,224,937 nonpublic school students and 8,700,922 public school students participated in Title III projects in fiscal year 1966. Nonpublic school participation amounted to about 12.3 percent of the total number of students who participated in projects funded under this Title. Of the 354,707 teachers who participated in Title III inservice training programs, 40,136 or 11.3 percent taught in nonpublic schools. In fiscal year 1967, 844,571 nonpublic school and 10,475,972 public school students participated in projects funded under this Title; 7.8 percent of all students who participated in Title III projects in that year attended nonpublic schools. Thus, even though the number of students who participated in Title III projects in fiscal year 1967 increased by 1.4 million, nonpublic school participation decreased by 340,366. Finally, 3.3 percent of the 90,707 teachers who participated in Title III inservice-training programs taught in nonpublic schools.

The degree of legal nonpublic school involvement in any ESEA program is dependent upon the Act, the Regulations, the Guidelines, and, where it exists, the State Plan governing the program.

The State Plan serves as a legal basis for the State's participation in a Federal grant program, and it must, under the law, reflect the spirit and intent of the Act, as detailed in the Guidelines and Regulations.

Under the new Regulations for Title III, the State educational agency must establish a State advisory council that is "broadly representative of the cultural and educational resources of the State" including representatives of elementary and secondary schools and higher education, specialists in the education of the handicapped, and members of the public, particularly those with low incomes. By definition, moreover, "cultural and educational resources" include the SEA, institutions of higher education, nonprofit private schools, public and nonprofit private agencies such as libraries, museums, musical and artistical organizations, educational radio and television, and other cultural and educational resources. The Council will advise the SEA on the preparation of the State Plan, on policy arising from the administration of it, and on the development of criteria for review of project applications under the plan; review each application for a grant and make recommendations to the SEA with respect to it; evaluate projects funded under the State Plan; and submit recommendations and evaluations of Title III activities in its State to the SEA.

The Regulations also list certain conditions, requirements and assurances that must be included in any State Plan before it can be approved. Participation in the Title III program by nonprofit private school children is a prerequisite State Plan condition:

> The State Plan shall, to the extent consistent with the number of children enrolled in nonprofit private schools in the area to be served whose educational needs are of the type provided by the program or project, make provision for the participation of such children.

This prerequisite condition is repeated in the State Plan program requirements, State Plan assurances, and program assurances.

Under the State plan program requirements, the State Plan must list the major criteria which will be utilized by the Council to review LEA project applications. The criteria relating to nonpublic school participation are documentation, participation, evaluation, and dissemination. The documentation must cite the involvement of the "cultural and educational resources" of the project area in the planning, implementing, and evaluating of the project. Dissemination of information about the proposed project must be "appropriate and adequate" for the area to be served, and Statewide dissemination of significant innovative and exemplary projects is another program reguirement.

Each State Plan must contain two assurances which relate to nonprofit private schools. First, the State Plan must assure that no grant will be made to a LEA unless persons broadly representative of the cultural and educational resources of the area to be served, including potential beneficiaries, have participated in the project planning and will continue to participate in the establishment, implementation, and evaluation of the project. And, second, the State Plan must assure that the participation of children enrolled in nonpublic schools has been provided for.

These provisions reflect the spirit and intent of the Act, which specifies that after each State has received its allotment of $200,000, additional funding will be allotted to that State on the basis of population and of the number of children ages 5 through 17 -- all children not only those attending public schools. The State Plan program requirements, moreover, provide for the objective identification of the general and critical educational needs of all children in the State. Section 309 of the Act provides for the appointment of a National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services. In terms of the intent of the law, the participation of children from nonprofit private schools in Title III projects should be realistically evaluated and, moreover, should constitute an integral part of the National Advisory Council's annual reports.

Generally, the States have appointed at least one nonprofit private school representative to their Title III State Advisory Councils. However, in a number of instances the persons selected have not always been the best available nor the most representative of the nonpublic school sector.

According to the Act, representatives of the nonpublic school sector, as part of the community, must also participate in project planning, implementation, evaluation, and dissemination. Such persons, moreover, must participate in these phases of the project whether or not the project is applicable to them. ESEA history has shown that joint planning in the early stages of a project usually results in more equitable participation as well as improved cooperation, interaction, and communication between the public and nonpublic schools and in a better project generally.

The U.S. Office of Education recognizes the special problems of implementing the ESEA in the nonpublic schools. It has been generously cooperative in seeking solutions to seemingly insolvable problems. Mutual respect has developed out of mutual concern for the education of all America's children. Much has been accomplished since 1965, but much also remains to be done. Therefore, in order to facilitate the implementation of Title III and the ESEA generally, the following recommendations are offered: a) create the Federal post of Associate Commissioner for Nonpublic Education; b) provide, at the SEA level, for an ESEA coordinator for nonpublic education; c) sponsor policy-level ESEA national, regional, big city, and State dialogic conferences involving both the public and nonpublic sectors; d) increase the accountability of SEA's and LEA's receiving Federal assistance to carry out their stated plans; e) maintain strict adherence to the legislative intent and letter of the law; f) continuously evaluate and revise ESEA Regulations, criteria, Guidelines, and State Plans; g) research and disseminate successfully working public - nonpublic school ESEA models.

Despite the problems of implementing the ESEA, it is increasingly functioning as a catalytic basis for purposeful interaction between public and nonpublic school educators. This fact, however, is frequently overlooked even in most serious discussions of the ESEA.

The local and State educational agencies are the Congressionally designated vehicles for the administration of this Act. By Congressional intent and design, then, the responsibility for the equitable administration of the ESEA rests with the public sector, not with the private. More often than not, however, most conversations on the ESEA to date have been initiated at the local, State, and national levels by nonpublic schoolmen and have been at the "watchdog" level. The purpose of these early discussions was to convince the public sector of their obligation to implement the ESEA impartially in terms of our national commitment to the quality education of all children.

ESEA participants are presently at the second level of their conversation: the nonpublic school educator is increasingly being asked by his public school counterpart to participate in ESEA formulations. The division of Elementary and Secondary Education, USCC, and the National Catholic Educational Association, for example, together with other nonpublic school agencies, are cooperating with the U.S. Office of Education in developing ESEA policy in terms of appropriate participation by all children. Diocesan and State Catholic Conference personnel are participating, in varying degrees, in project planning and in Title I, II, and III committees. The conversation has been slow in starting; however, it is now in motion. As we learn to understand and appreciate one another's goals and needs, this dialogue will undoubtedly pick up momentum. I am confident that as the problems of implementing the ESEA are gradually eliminated, American elementary and secondary education will rise to a new level of national significance.

* * *

SUMMARY OF GROUP DISCUSSION

The issue of the extent to which the nonpublic school is actually involved in Title III projects was discussed at length. Participants agreed that the requirement that nonpublic schools be involved is not taken too seriously by the public schools. Generally, they don't call upon nonpublic schools to any great extent in their planning and operation of the projects. Some members believed that the figures given in the reports to the Federal government are inflated. One possible way of solving this would be a requirement that the applications or reports be certified by the nonpublic school officials who are involved in the project. Perhaps a grant could be given to evaluate the quality of nonpublic school participation in Title III.

Nonpublic school officials should be involved in the planning, implementation, evaluation, and dissemination of Title III projects, even if they are not involved in their operation since the Title III allotment to the States is based on a school-age population that includes all the children in the State, not just public school children. On the other hand, in many cases, nonpublic school officials do not try hard enough to become involved; they also should make a greater effort.

BUSINESS, FOUNDATION, AND GOVERNMENT RELATIONS

Homer Dowdy
Assistant Director
Mott Foundation

The Mott Foundation has been in partnership with the public schools in Flint, Michigan for more than 30 years. I could talk to you about certain things we've learned that could be applied to business or to other foundations or to other agencies that could assist public schools in their efforts, but as Mr. Rubin said this morning, the worse way to disseminate information about anything is to talk about it. He said another bad method is to write about it. Mr. Rubin said that observation is one of the best methods of dissemination, so I would like to invite you all to come and observe our program as we have invited many other people. You're all welcome to come to Flint to see how this relationship between a foundation and the schools is working out.

The best way to disseminate, according to Mr. Rubin, is through involvement, and this is what we believe. Actually, the very essence of our program is involvement of the community in its program of education; this is what we've based our program on during these many years. I'm not trying to sell you anything and certainly would not ask you to copy anything. But we don't have a copyright on our ideas; in fact, we're real borrowers ourselves. We're not above taking someone else's good idea and making it work in our own community. If anyone else sees something in our program that interests him, we say, "Take it and use it in whatever way you can."

The Mott Foundation was established in the twenties by Mr. Charles Stewart Mott, who was one of the pioneers in the automobile industry. Mr. Mott felt that he couldn't do much about solving the problems of the world, but he thought he could try to do something about some of the problems in his community. He decided that he would use all the resources that he could to try to help make his own community as good a community as he could possibly make it. In using the city--the community of Flint--as a laboratory, he would create a demonstration center for innovation. Mr. Mott thought that the best way to improve a community, the best way to help a community help itself, was through the public schools. The public school is something that's owned by the people, all of the people, whether they have children in the building or not, whether their children attend public school or parochial school, or whether they are beyond the age of having children in school. They're the bosses of the school because they are the ones who pay for it. The schools, then, are a perfectly good vehicle for the people of the community to use in making their community a better place to live.

Many different things are going on in Flint because people who are in education, who have children in the schools, or who have a business in the neighborhood have had an idea of how to do things better and have had a common meeting place where they could discuss their ideas and a vehicle for putting some of these ideas into practice.

For example, one of our programs resulted from classroom teachers' knowing the difficulties of the classroom. Some teachers noticed that the children became droopy and listless about 10:00 in the morning and couldn't learn. By checking into the home conditions of these children, the teachers found out that the children had no breakfast at home because a good many of the mothers of the children in that community didn't know how to fix breakfast.

As a result, a breakfast program was started. Equipment was brought into the school so that a nourishing breakfast could be made. Of course, the primary purpose of the program was to feed those children so they would be on an equal footing with the other children. But the program was also aimed at bringing the mothers into the school to teach them the importance of fixing a breakfast for their youngsters and how to do it. Through many different efforts, the mothers were brought in to help. They became involved in the program, and their youngsters, the original group, no longer needed to come to the breakfast. But there was another group to take their place. This is just one of the examples of a teacher's finding a need and being able to do something about it.

We feel that citizen involvement in their community and in education is so important. What we call the "four I's" describe the essential steps to developing involvement. One "I" is "in." You have to bring people into the school. To bring them in, it is better to talk about their wants rather than their needs. People shy away from fulfilling their needs. For example, if you tell a man he should finish his high school education in order for him to succeed, he'll find excuses not to do so. But if you tell him there's a men's club being started at the school, and every Thursday night there is basketball or volleyball, he might be interested because this is something he likes to do. So he finds the school a friendly place which is open to him, and he's in.

After he's in, then you get him interested. What else goes on at the school? One man may be taking a class in tying flies for fishing or a class in carpentry or something else he's interested in. This man, too, has interests. Find that interest and work on that interest, and you've got him involved. Perhaps the people in the neighborhood are working together on something very important to them--trying to clear out some detriment to the neighborhood, for example--and he gets interested in the problem and gets involved in the community.

The fourth "I" is "informed." When he's informed, he's ready to pitch in and help not only himself, but others who have a particular need. In all of this, you move from wants to needs. So often I think we tend to measure everything in terms of needs, and we become discouraged because people sometimes just don't seem to be interested in fulfilling their needs. But if you start first with their wants and move from those to their needs, you'll be amazed at the results.

One of the greatest results of such a program is community involvement in the support of education. When this program started in the thirties, Flint was taxing itself about 2 1/2 million dollars for education. Today, because people are involved, we're taxing ourselves in excess of 40 million dollars in support of public education in our community. Before people became involved, Flint had a record of turning down every educational bond issue. The attitude was "Let them run the schools with what they've got." But after people became really involved in education, their attitude was, "We need more money; we need to pay our teachers more; we need new facilities; and we'll do it." Since 1950, every campaign for more money for the schools has been successful. After people have become interested, involved, and informed as to what the needs are and what can be done, then they become willing to support education.

Mr. Mott says that what a foundation can do in a community is to grease the wheels. Some people call it seed money, but he's been in the automobile business all of his life so he talks about greasing the wheels to get a lot more mileage. This is what we've been doing--greasing the wheels a little bit to see if the community might not get more mileage for its school system. Let me describe briefly some of the things this greasing of the wheels has been able to do in Flint. We have a very large and diverse adult education and enrichment program. All of our 55 school buildings are adult education centers. Our county jail is also an adult education center. Did you ever realize how many men in the county jail need something? They're all going to be out of there one of these days, and most of them are sitting, waiting. We've gone into the jail; we've gone into the State prisons trying to prepare these men for jobs and for life in the community again.

Recreation is another of our concerns. We think, of course, that recreation is good in itself as well as being a means to an end, and we're firm believers in involving people, not as spectators, but as participants. We have a boys' baseball program in which every boy in the community, regardless of how good or how bad he might be as a baseball player, has an opportunity to play. We have some 500 teams every summer playing baseball. I know that not all of those boys are future stars on the champion Detroit Tigers, but at least they have an opportunity to play organized baseball. We also sponsor olympic type games in which we emphasize family participation. Just last year we had 11,000 people participating, many of them in families, in all kinds of sports for their enjoyment.

Health is another important part of any educational program. If a child is in poor health, he can't learn very much. We have a "health guarded" program where we try to find the children who need help and then see that they get that help.

We also have all kinds of experimental programs. Some of the ideas people come up with don't work, but if you're afraid of failures now and then, you should forget all about innovation and experimentation. We know, for example, that it's hard today to teach a child about dairying and farming when it's hard to find a farm anymore. So we've made arrangements with a farmer to take the third grade children to see his farm; there they can see what it is to milk a cow and can catch a glimpse of those other adventures that are fast disappearing from the experiences of most urban children.

We've been trying to work with the students who are not going to college. We realize that most high school courses do not prepare these students adequately. We're recognizing that we can't throw these kids on the ash heap with the diploma in their hands. We're trying to give them marketable skills, skills that will interest them so they can become good citizens when they get out of school, so that they can become people who are proud of something they can do. To do this, we have established a skill center with perhaps 20 or 30 different courses of study in an effort to find something of interest to these people who are going directly into the labor force.

We are also trying to do something about the school dropout problem. Instead of trying to make the child fit the school, maybe if we could make the school fit the child, we might be able to save some of these youngsters. Through the school counselors, who saw this problem and some of the things that might be done; we developed what we call the Personalized Curriculum Program, PCP, which involves work-related experience. For example, if a fellow works as a mechanic's helper in a garage, his math is based upon his work and his reading is based upon the manual instructions that he has to have in his work. We are trying to build around his interests, to capture the method that will fit his interests so that he can be a self-pusher, rather than always having to be pulled. As a result of this program, our school dropout rate is much lower.

But we realized that we were trying to repair and were really working at the wrong end of the problem. We should go back and reach these kids before they become potential dropouts. This means going back even to preschool and working especially in those sections of the city which we might call disadvantaged. Children from those areas don't have the experiences that would enable them to pick up the first grade reader and make progress in it. You have to begin with them where they are and bring them to the point where they have an even start because, as you know, if a child has a disadvantage when he begins school, the gap never narrows. Instead, it just keeps on getting wider and wider. Hopefully, we can eventually eliminate the need for separate programs for the potential dropout by reaching these kids when they first start school or even before they start.

A child doesn't just come to school to be turned on when he gets there. He comes from an environment that is a part of him, that is part of his learning process. Education can't be limited to classrooms, can't be limited to the hours of 9 to 3; it reaches into the home. I think one of the best features of our community school program is that we've learned that there is a great need for someone to have the responsibility of reaching into the home and into the community. We call this person a community school director. He's a fellow who comes in at noon and teaches half a day and then spends the rest of the time either out in that community or in the building working with programs directly related to the community. He develops a community council, block clubs, and so forth. His job is to find out what the community needs and wants are, and then to see what can be done. He's one of the reasons our community school program has been so successful.

* * *

SUMMARY OF GROUP DISCUSSION

In response to questions from the group, Mr. Dowdy discussed the policies of foundations which aid education, using the Mott Foundation as his specific example. He began by reminding the group that private foundations consider themselves innovators and prefer to provide the risk capital needed to support a program while it is still being tested. Therefore, they do not pick up or sustain projects which have been funded by other sources. Instead, they look for pilot or test programs with the hope that once these programs have proved their value, public funds will be used to support them. This explains the common foundation practice of reducing contributions to a specific project over a period of years. Mr. Dowdy also emphasized the fact that the Mott Foundation, rather than dictating policies to school administrators, encourages local personnel to plan and implement projects themselves. The remaining discussion focused on specific projects and activities in Flint, Michigan, the site of most Mott Foundation activities.

PROVISION FOR THE HANDICAPPED

James Gallagher
Associated Commissioner of Education for the Handicapped
U. S. Office of Education

One of the questions frequently asked our staff is a rather blunt one: "How did the handicapped get into Title III?" To answer this question, I should review a whole series of changes which have occurred in the area of education for the handicapped over the past decade.

In a sense, the attitude of society toward the handicapped is changing in a similar, but not so noticeable way as is the attitude of people toward the poor. One of the major changes is from a philosophy of care and comfort for the handicapped to a new philosophy of enlarging their opportunities for self-development and accomplishment. Still, there remain vestiges of the earlier philosophy which I refer to from time to time as the Thanksgiving-basket approach or the all-night telethon approach. People feel that somehow they're responsible for their neighbor's having a handicapped youngster. Sometimes their feelings become so strong that they must do something, but doing something often turns out to be a rather non-productive act -- a basket at Christmastime for the poor, or an all-out drive for money for the handicapped for one day or a weekend.

The new philosophy emerging, I think, is partly an outcome of the experiences of servicemen who came back from World War II without legs, without arms, without sight or hearing. They demonstrated how amazingly adaptable the human organism is and how responsive a person can be when he is given the proper training opportunities.

If we want to be honest about it, I think we must admit that we had been making a kind of unhappy self-fulfilling prophecy in the sense that we had assumed that handicapped children or mentally retarded children could not learn. We proceeded to give them no stimulation and no exciting experiences to help them learn, and we found out that we were right, that they didn't learn very well after all. But the experiences of the States and the local communities in the expanding educational programs developed throughout the country have shown us that we were wrong. And, the better the program, the more inaccurate we were.

Recent Federal intervention in the area of the handicapped has been dramatic. In 1957, the Federal Government spent less than a million dollars for educational programs for the handicapped. In fiscal year 1969, over a hundred million dollars will be spent directly for this area, and probably another 50 or 60 million dollars will be spent on associated programs. It's a very dramatic difference, but it shouldn't overwhelm you. Our best estimate from the information we get from the States and the local communities is that about 900 million dollars over and above regular education funds is being spent on programs for the handicapped. And with this money, only a little over 30 percent of the handicapped children in the States are receiving specialized care.

When you ask where Title III fits in, the answer is that Title III is one of a whole series, a whole wave, of actions on the part of the Federal

Government to stimulate school systems to follow the new philosophy that handicapped youngsters deserve the utmost in stimulation and in opportunity and that, given this, they will develop into productive citizens or into more productive citizens than they have been in the past.

You might be interested in some of the other new legislation providing funds for the handicapped. For example, we now have a Title VI-A of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, which is a State aid program whose funds go on a formula basis to the States to help them initiate and extend programs for the handicapped. We had 15 million dollars in Title VI-A in 1968, and we hope to double that or nearly double it in 1969. There's an amendment to Title I of the ESEA which allows State and State-supported institutions for the handicapped to improve their educational programs. About 24 million dollars has been spent for this effort. In addition, an estimated 25 million dollars is being spent from Title I for services for handicapped children who come from low-income homes. We now have the authority to develop regional resource centers to provide the child and the teacher with the latest in materials, methods, and skills. We also have centers for deaf-blind children, and we have been authorized to provide new educational resources for these youngsters with multiple handicaps. We hope to have a million dollars in the next year to begin this program. We have a major research and demonstration program and a significant dissemination system. We have a training program that involves 250 colleges and universities throughout the country and expenditures of 24.5 million dollars. We have an authorized model secondary school for the deaf that is going to be placed here in the Nation's capital. A media services program designed to strengthen the instructional materials and media services for the handicapped has been established. Finally, I would like to note the establishment of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped within the Office of Education to administer all the programs that directly relate to the handicapped.

Moreover, yesterday I was privileged to witness the signing of a new bill: the Handicapped Children's Early Education Assistance Act. This act will provide from 75 to 100 model centers and demonstration programs to assist the States and local communities in expanding their own resources for the early education of handicapped children by providing exemplary models of early intervention methods for the handicapped. I think that if you can view Title III as one more bead in the necklace of resources that we are trying to devote to the problem, you can see where Title III fits in.

As for the role of Title III in the process of getting knowledge into action -- research, development, dissemination, implementation, and adoption -- Title III really falls somewhere in the area of demonstration and implementation. We have the research authority, the developmental authority, the service function of State aid programs and aid to State institutions and training programs. What we lacked was a major emphasis on demonstration and implementation. It's one thing to have theory; it's another thing to have a model directly in front of you. Title III programs can supply these models.

I have picked out three examples of programs for the handicapped now being supported under Title III. One represents an attempt to develop a statewide program for identifying needs and providing remedial services for preschool deaf children in nine geographic regions of Indiana. It involves the Indiana Department of Public Instruction, the State Board of Health, and Ball State University. This kind of coordination of services and institutions and organization of resources into a meaningful program is something we would like to encourage.

Another program, behavior modification of the emotionally disturbed involves bringing into the school such specialized personnel as a psychiatric social worker and a clinical psychologist to assist the classroom teacher in identifying children with behavior problems and to develop an intensive program for them including specific curriculum materials, audiovisual aids, and training in self-contained classrooms.

Another program is preparing trainable retarded children for sheltered employment. We often find that we underestimate what the handicapped can do. We have never really tapped the full range of their potential. Many retarded children can participate meaningfully in a sheltered environment.

We must dispel traditional false notions about the handicapped. We must also change an attitude about the field of special education which I have noticed frequently, the attitude of regular educators that if they were only doing their job, they wouldn't need us. I think they're misreading history. The history of all the professions -- medicine, law, psychology, etc. -- tells us that as professions grow and mature, they naturally break up into various specialties. As education matures and develops, we will have to accept the fact that there's just too much for any one person to learn. What we ask an elementary school teacher to know now is beyond the bounds of reason. So we must learn how to use the knowledge of the specialist to develop a total, integrated program which is coordinated with the on-going regular education programs, as well as with special education programs. One of our fondest hopes is that Title III will help foster a meaningful integration of the regular education program and the special education program.

* * *

SUMMARY OF GROUP DISCUSSION

Discussion focused on some of the specific problems which members of the group have faced in planning programs for the handicapped. Among them, the provision of services for handicapped children in isolated rural areas, the dissemination of effective programs, and the coordination of funds from different Federal programs. In most cases, group members suggested possible solutions to problems which have been successful in thier States. For example, many prodominantly rural States have relied on either regional centers or mobile units to supply special services for the handicapped. Dissemination suggestions included use of deucational television, conferences, consultants, and written material. The problem of coordinating funds produced fewer specific suggestions as there are so many legal restrictions involved. The discussion ended with a general agreement that innovation is essential in the field of special education and that Title III funds committed to this area should be used for that purpose.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT*

Charles Smith
Special Assistant to the Commissioner
for Urban Education
U. S. Office of Education

There is an atmosphere of distrust permeating community organizations because they have had too many experiences with unfulfilled promises. They are no longer content to make a comprehensive assessment of educational needs; they are now saying, "Tell us how much money you've got, and we'll tell you how to spend it." Community organizations want to be actively involved in the educational goals and programs which are affecting their children. And they want to define their own role in the program; hence successful models elsewhere may or may not be relevant.

What is new in community involvement is that the demand for more involvement is coming from traditionally apathetic communities, the urban communities, for example. These people are no longer apathetic, as evidenced by urban demonstrations and sit-ins. They have concluded that education in urban centers has failed them and is failing their children. They have also concluded that the children are leaving school without marketable skills. They know that there must be a smoother transition from school to work. They know too that the curriculum must be made relevant to their lives and that giving Dick and Jane a paint job is not making the curriculum any more relevant than it ever was. The people want to work to solve these problems; they realize that solving them is crucial.

From an educator's standpoint, why should the community be involved in education? For one thing, the child spends less time in school than he does in his neighborhood, his community. He learns in both environments, and one reinforces the other. Unfortunately, the basic tools the inner city child needs for survival are being acquired on the street, and these tools are not commensurate with the goals we have set. We educators still act as if education can exist in a vacuum. Only in a community where there is total commitment to education can the basic tools and goals of education be important and relevant to the lives of the children of that community.

In light of recent event, I would like to make a distinction between community involvement and decentralization. It is a mistake to suddenly thrust a decision-making role on the community without first assessing the level of sophistication of that community. The community itself must develop before it is ready to be involved in education in a meaningful way. Decentralization is merely an administrative mechanism; initial community involvement does not have to be this programmatic. People called for hiring and firing power because they felt they were being cut off from the educational system. With real community involvement, such a feeling would not exist.

The key to the development of meaningful community involvement is the actual participation of the community in that development. In short, the community itself must determine the kind of representation and involvement which best expresses that particular community.

---

* This is a summary of Dr. Smith's remarks.

SUMMARY OF GROUP DISCUSSION

Mr. Smith noted that all community involvement efforts should begin with an assessment of the community's sophistication. It is a mistake to place people with no experience or training in positions of leadership without first giving them an opportunity to develop leadership ability. Thus, community involvement does not necessarily mean local control. It is essential, however, to allow the community to decide how it wishes to be represented and what role it wishes to play. It seems quite clear at the moment that most community residents do not want to make comprehensive need assessments, the role which they are usually assigned. What they do wish to do will vary from place to place; therefore, a successful program in one city may be irrelevant to another community. The discussion concluded with a general agreement that meaningful community involvement must be planned by the community itself.

TWO HOUSES DO NOT MAKE A HOME

Ralph K. Huitt
Assistant Secretary for Legislation
U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Let me talk to you about the making of public policy, using education as an example. First, I think the question might be asked: who legislates? You know that we Americans think we have a separation of power system, with the Congress legislating, the President executing, and the courts adjudicating. The truth, of course, is that we don't really have a separation of power at all; we have a separation of institutions. The President of the United States is the principal legislator. He sends legislative proposals to the Congress in the spring with measures to go along with them, and Congress waits for his proposals, though it certainly may alter them, because this is part of its role.

We know that Congress has its hand in administration and that the courts of the country legislate. (If you were to ask me what the two most important bases of legislation in the last 10 years were, I would, without hesitation, say the school desegregation decision of 1954, and the one man, one vote decision of 1960.)

What we do have is separation of personnel and separation of institutions. Members of Congress behave in one way, and bureaucrats behave in another. If you are going to work with Congressmen, you have to learn how they behave and how they think. Bureaucrats and Congressmen are different kinds of people partly because of the different kinds of stimuli to which they must respond. They are socialized by the institutions they live in. Therefore, there is a certain institutional tension between the bureacrats and the members of Congress.

I once sat in a meeting of an educational subcommittee, with a half-dozen people from our office, working closely and cordially with the members of Congress. There I heard a member of Congress say, when someone said something about helping a bureaucrat, "Why I wouldn't help. I have never helped a bureaucrat in my life." Whereupon he went right ahead helping him.

Because of the separation of institutions, Congress and the Executive Branch must first work out some kind of accommodation to accomplish anything. Perhaps we should begin by talking about the President's role in the policy-making process. A lot of people think that the President lives in a certain kind of atmosphere, some kind of very fine atmosphere. There are people in our society who think that every time there is some breakdown, that power should be given to the President. The truth is that the President is a man, an adult human being and, like other people, he gets tired and he gets angry, regardless of party. He can work 16 or 17 hours a day and, in that time, he has to oversee the Government, put badges on Girl Scouts, legislate for the country, and worry about foreign policy. So somebody has to give him ideas. We are engaged, at this time of the year, in taking the legislative recommendations from our agencies and getting them ready for the Secretary so that sometime in the next few weeks our first packet will go to the White House for the Bureau of the Budget.

Another source of ideas and recommendations is public task forces and commissions. Notice I said public task forces. This is the kind of task force that has the distinguished "Mr. Somebody" as the chairman and includes persons from the minority ethnic groups, a woman, someone from each of the principal sections of the country, and a member of the minority party. The commission gets a staff and goes to work, meeting 6 or 7 times. The result is the commission's report, and it may be a very good report. It may be one with good recommendations that the President likes and wants to implement. If so, the idea of having a commission was good because now the President has additional support. He can go to the Hill and say this is what the "Somebody" Commission recommended, and this helps him in getting the bill passed. But when the commission develops a report the President doesn't want, the President has a problem because people keep referring to the commission's ideas.

If it's hard to live with a public task force; an alternative is to work with anonymous task forces and work groups. These are made up of all kinds of people. There may be 15 of them in existence and there may be 30. They make recommendations to the President, and these recommendations are very useful because the fact that they are anonymous means that the task forces can say what they please and the fact that they are anonymous means that the President can accept or reject what they say without embarrassment. The trouble with anonymous task forces is that they make everybody angry. The Association representatives in Washington try to find out who is on the task force and who the task force is representing. People begin to wonder about their salaries. And the Congress wants to know where these legislative recommendations come from.

Another source of ideas is brainstorming by the President's staff. One bright member of the President's staff may go around the country and meet with groups of professors from 15 or 20 institutions. They have dinner, they talk for a few hours, and they develop ideas. But the trouble with people in this kind of situation is that they are "irresponsible." By that I mean that they don't have to carry out any of the things they suggest.

Congressional initiative is also a source of legislative recommendations. Members of Congress initiate a lot more legislation than the public thinks. Most people think that the President initiates and Congress simply reacts. To mention a few things, Congress has done much for the cities, has initiated air pollution and water pollution legislation, and has initiated programs to help the handicapped. Congress, then, plays a much more creative role than people ordinarily think.

To go back to the Executive role in policy making, the Executive Branch puts together the ideas it has gathered and developed, and the legislative bill goes up--one message and about 8 bills at a time all through the months of spring. What happens when these reach Congress? To understand and appreciate the process, you first have to try to understand Congress. The first thing people have to realize is that there are two Houses in Congress, and these two Houses never do act together. I have a friend who works with Congress every year who says when he writes his book on Congress, he is going to call it Two Houses Do Not Make a Home. This is the beginning of wisdom, and I will return to it in just a minute.

Let's look at another core of the system--the Congressional committees. In about 1884, Woodrow Wilson said, "Congress in debate is Congress on display. Congress in committee rooms is Congress at work." That is as true today as it ever was. When the system began, the idea was to separate the Executive Branch from the Legislative Branch of the Government. Congress had to devise ways of getting independent information to check on what the Executive

Branch recommended, and it developed committees to do so. Congress then made the committees standing committees with specialized jurisdiction. Since then, Congress has had to decide which committee handles what legislation and this sometimes creates problems.

The committee system as a whole is simply a device for getting information, but it is also a system of power. When a committee has jurisdiction over a certain kind of subject matter, it takes to itself part of the power of the leadership. Therefore, the chairman of the committee is a very important, powerful man indeed. You can get some sense of this when you see what committee chairmen do about their leadership problem, namely, what they do about subcommittees. What happens when a committee chairman has had parceled out to him and his committee a piece of the House's power? Some chairmen who are democratic and don't worry about problems handle it democratically; some of them even try to make every member of their committee chairman of some subcommittee. But there are some committee chairmen who want to retain the problem, and so they may have no subcommittees at all. The House Ways and Means Committee last year considered the enormous 500-page Social Security Bill in full committee because the chairman did not want to separate the committee into subcommittees. Or the chairman may appoint subcommittees but then try to deny them specialized jurisdiction. He will call one subcommittee "A," another subcommittee "B," and another subcommittee "C." Then he will try to scramble the bill. The committee chairmen sort the bills, so this chairman will have subcommittee "A" handling elementary and secondary education, subcommittee "B" handling higher education, and so on.

Another important fact to remember about the committee system is that it makes a difference who the members of the committees and subcommittees are. For example, if the chairman and members of the Appropriations Subcommittee who believe you can't spend too much money for health and education, die, retire or lose the election, the situation can change drastically. A subcommittee where money was added for health and education to the President's budget can become a group whose members think it is pretty easy to spend too much money on health and education.

I said a minute ago that I was going to tell you how the two Houses are different. When a bill goes to the floor of the House of Representatives, from that point on, an inexorable process takes over. You can tell the people in the White House on Monday morning, as I have, that a little bill is going to go through on Tuesday morning with no trouble at all. You can then sit in the gallery on Tuesday afternoon watching a coalition of members realize that they have the votes and then see them take your bill to pieces, writing amendments on little bits of paper, amendments you cannot even understand when the clerk reads them. It would not matter if you could understand them because you can't get anybody off the floor; you can't reach the people anyway.

The Senate is a different proposition. It is a much slower body, one which likes to settle things off the floor. If trouble with a bill develops during the first week, the bill is stalled. People out in the country say, "Why can't you get on with the education bill." The reason they don't get on with the education bill is that if it were brought to the floor, somebody might torpedo it. In the week that the bill is officially the business of the Senate, negotiations are going on back stage. The chances are the problem will be worked out and some kind of agreement reached, and when all is settled, the Senators will come to the floor and pass the bill.

What I am suggesting to you, then, is that there is much to know about this remarkably interesting and varied two-house body, if you are going to work with it constructively.

It should not be thought that policy is made only by the President, the Congress, and the Supreme Court. Policy is made by quite a lot of people. For example, policy is made by the politically interested groups who are indispensable to the system. These are the national Associations, which have executive secretaries who do research and who keep up with what is going on, which is the most difficult thing for someone in the field to know. The members of the Association know that the bill is coming up on Tuesday and not Thursday as it was announced in the Record. Unless people know what the issues are going to be, the executive secretary has very little influence on the Hill, just as I personally have very little influence on the Hill. The executive secretary of the Association and I are politically impotent people who live in the Nation's Capitol. Members of Congress don't care about what we think. The reason why we can be important is that we have access to the people who do write to members of Congress and who elect them or reject them. These Associations, then, are indispensable to the system because they tell the members of Congress what their consituents think and what the group will fight for.

There is a role in the system for what might be called public opinion. One segment of public opinion is made up of opinion leaders--educational writers; knowledgeable people who write, in your case, for educational journals; officers of Associations, etc. These are the people who shape the public opinion that matters--the opinion of the attentive and alert public that the public officials are listening to.

You may ask "What is the role of what we think of as public opinion, something that includes most of the people?" I think we can say that the general public has very little interest in and very little knowledge about most of what goes on. Before you feel smart and think I am not talking about us, let me ask you what you know about Japanese fish nets. This was a big policy issue, a foreign policy issue for some people in Wisconsin. What do you know about radiation in mines? What do you know about radiation for that matter? What Congress does is infinitely complicated, and some people know about almost everything that goes on. The general public cannot know. However, the public as a whole does have moods and general attitudes which anyone who is politically sensitive can recognize. And these moods set the balance of what the officials can do. For example, the general attitude for a long time was that you couldn't have Federal aid to education because this meant Federal control. And you remember how long it was before we were willing to face the church-State issue in education?

What we have in America is not a policy-making system which includes the President, Congress, and its public members, etc. What we have is a number of policy-making systems in which education policy, for instance, is made by education subcommittes; by specialists in HEW; by specialists on the President's staff and in the Bureau of the Budget; by Associations that represent education; by people who write about education; and ultimately, in the big issues which are passed, by the general public. Some of these people are not the same people who make welfare policy or health policy or many other kinds of policy, but these are the people who know about the issues in the area of education. I think it is accurate to say that our system is one in which these individual policy systems are like planes which cut each other only at certain points. When you participate in helping to make education policy, your influence is enormously disproportionate to that of most peoples, since the other experts in education policy know about you and pay attention to what you think because they know your opinion is important.

I would like to mention several considerations about legislative strategy and tactics which I think may be useful to you. These are ways in which I think you can be helpful in the legislative process. In the first place, there is a time dimension in legislation. I think one of the most unhappy developments in this country has been the tendency to measure the President's success in terms of box votes: The President proposed 20 bills, and he got 19; that is a batting average of so much. The truth is you can run up a good box score if you don't propose anything that won't pass. You run up a good box score if you propose a lot of little stuff that does not matter. I don't say that any administration should present proposals to Congress which cannot possibly pass; it is necessary for something to be proposed, to be talked about, and to become a part of the currency of the people who think about these matters long before they are to be passed. President Johnson signed the Medicare Bill in Independence, Missouri, as recognition of the fact that Medicare never could have been passed had not President Truman gone out on a limb with something much more daring than that 20 years earlier. There is a place in legislation for the middle-of-the roader, and there is a place for the person who works in the here-and-now; but, there is a place also for the person who is looking at the distant future, and for the person who is taking positions which seem extreme now but which 15 or 20 years from now may be the positions held by nearly everybody.

I also think that it is important to begin with a great idea. You will see it trimmed in order to get the support of this group and that group; and, finally, they will say, "let's kill it and come up with a decent bill next year." The important thing is to get the idea on the books. When you get it on the books, you are over the first hurdle and the next year you add a little to it, and so the process goes on. It is interesting to look at the bills which were controversial bills just a few years ago; for example, the public housing bill, which took two years to fight through Congress, now is so popular that it is a great umbrella. Everything that was too controversial to pass any other way this year was tacked on to the housing bill.

Finally, I would like to explode a myth associated with working successfully with legislators--the myth of the cocktail circuit. When I first came here, I was with a friend, a freshman Congressman, who said to me, "Ralph, I am going to give you a cocktail party and invite members of Congress so you can get started." I went to the party and talked to every one of those 16 members of Congress who were there. Then I met those people in and out of office buildings in the next couple of weeks, and they didn't recognize me. One of the persons in the office building was a Congressman known to be interested in education. I called him and said, "I want to talk to you about education." We talked about education for an hour and have been fast friends since. In the government, as in many places, the way to succeed is to work and to know what you are doing. When you deal with Congress, forget the business about cocktails and arm-twisting. Confidence is the great currency in the business. Keep your promises, work with your friends, talk to the people in the middle, and leave your enemies alone.

I believe our policy-making system is a very good one. I will tell you what I think its strength is and what I think its weakness is. I think the strength of the system is based on this specialization and consideration by committees and experts, which results in careful and expert development and consideration of legislation. What the system cannot do, except at the level of the President himself, is to think about the whole picture, to set priorities, to announce goals. Does anyone here know what the goals of the Federal Government in education are? If these goals ever have been articulated, I have never come across them. The great weakness of the system is that we do not yet have a method for establishing goals other than through the President himself. When you go to the Hill, then, there is no way to bring expenditures and revenues into any kind of relationship with each other. We talk about a budget, but there is no such thing as a budget which doesn't relate income to outgo. Our system, in effect, does not have that kind of central control which, I think, as we move into more difficult times, we are somehow going to have to establish.

* * *

CONGRESSIONAL EXPECTATIONS FOR ESEA TITLE III*

John Brademas
U. S. House of Representatives

I regret very much that I am unable to appear in person, but I am grateful for the opportunity to transmit this statement to the President's National Advisory Council Conference on Innovation.

I am especially honored and pleased to address this conference because I believe that a discussion of the future of the Title III program is crucial at this point in time and because you who are charged with carrying its goals forward carry an important responsibility for revitalization and change in American education.

President Johnson has said that, "The mid 1960's will be remembered as a time of unprecedented achievement in American education."

As you well know, these years have been marked by a growing and diversified Federal commitment to the support of our schools and colleges. The Federal Government has raised its investment in education to nearly $12 Billion annually, almost triple the level of four years ago. During my 10 years as a member of the House Education and Labor Committee, I have witnessed the passage of more than 50 laws to support education in every sector and at every level, from preschool through graduate school and adult education.

With these new funds and new programs, you at the State level have been called upon to assume more responsibilities and to provide stronger leadership. State educational agencies have responded well to the challenge of administering some of the major titles of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, particularly Titles I and II. Moreover, many State agencies have taken full advantage of Title V under the Act to strengthen their staff capacity.

Now the States have been given the additional responsibility of administering Title III of the ESEA, the program you have been discussing in detail for the past two days. I consider this new responsibility a major challenge to the States, for Title III, in my view, is a key part of the entire ESEA, and many of us in Congress have very high expectations for it. Let me explain why.

In the major titles of ESEA, Congress focused on certain critical national needs in education--such as textbooks and library resources, educational research and development, education of the disadvantaged. But I think it can be argued that the impact of such investments will be minimal unless they are accompanied by significant change and departure from old routines of teaching and learning.

---

* Scheduled address was not delivered, but is included in this report with the permission of Mr. Brademas.

The late Senator Robert Kennedy frequently made this point, emphasizing that, particularly in ghetto school systems, little is accomplished by pouring millions into programs and curricula that have for years failed the needs of school children. In most cases, more of the same serves no purpose.

Title III was designed in 1965 to meet this need for stimulating imaginative, creative, and better ways of educating children -- the Federal Government's first large-scale effort explicitly to foster innovation and experimentation in local school systems across the country.

Enactment of Title III represented a mandate for the Nation's educators to pioneer new ideas. To aid their search, it provided that resource so rare in these times of tight money and budget cuts -- high risk capital with which to experiment, to evaluate, and even to fail.

The requirements Congress wrote into this program were not and are not restrictive. We do not require a guarantee of instant success, for this would only encourage the use of the easiest rather than the best solution. We do not even expect complete success, for this would make true experimentation impossible. But we do expect and require the kind of careful planning which forms the foundation of innovation and creativity. And we expect the kind of evaluation which will weed out the unpromising and identify the effective. And, finally, we expect the kind of dissemination which will spread new approaches and encourage the adoption of promising projects throughout the country.

Congress set high standards for Title III, for we believed then and we continue to believe that it is our major hope for the future of education.

I think I should be perfectly frank in pointing out that some of us on the education committees in Congress were therefore skeptical about proposals offered last year to shift the authority for administering Title III to the States. While we are very hopeful, some of us continue to have certain reservations now that the shift has, in fact, begun to take place as a result of last year's ESEA amendments.

I might note that the particular points I cite here were developed in a statement signed by 5 members of the House Special Subcommittee on Education and submitted as additional views to a subcommittee study of the U.S. Office of Education last year.

First, we felt that there was very strong support for the former arrangements on the local level. A comprehensive study of the Title III program, directed by Dr. Richard I. Miller of the University of Kentucky, tended to support this view. A survey by Norman Kurland of New York State included in the report revealed that 90 percent of the 723 local project directors surveyed favored keeping the previous pattern of Title III administration. From these figures, we felt safe in assuming that those who actually directed Title III projects were satisfied with arrangements as they then stood.

Second, we were not convinced that all State educational agencies had developed the staff resources to assume full responsibility for the Title III program. Again, Dr. Miller's study offered us concrete evidence. Of the 47 States included in his survey, only 10 had full-time Title III coordinators. Of the 37 part-time coordinators, 8 gave 50 percent of their time to Title III and 9 gave 10 percent of their time to it.

Such lack of staff support did not seem reassuring in regard to the capacity of State departments to take control of the Title III program. For to accept the responsibility for administering Title III, it seemed to us, was not to accept the responsibility for just "another" program. The Title III emphasis on innovative thinking, it seemed, would require building a qualified staff with a battery of experts on a wide range of educational concerns.

I recognize, of course, that some States do have this capacity, and some have played a positive role in Title III even prior to the changes initiated this year. But other States are not so experienced and well staffed; in these States it seems likely that the responsibility for Title III will be a double challenge.

Another area of concern to many of us was the danger of radically changing a program which has with great success avoided church-State controversies. For year as you know, this issue contributed to the defeat of legislation to provide Federal support for elementary and secondary education. The ESEA of 1965 broke the deadlock with a carefully devised formula enabling parochial school children to share in the benefits of a number of publicly operated programs. At present, over one million nonpublic school children are participating in Title III programs. Should such participation be jeopardized as Title III is shifted to the States (and I understand that over 30 States have explicit constitutional restrictions concerning aid, direct or indirect, to nonpublic schools) the result could be to create widespread discord and to vitiate the cooperative efforts between public and parochial schools that are now taking place under Title III.

Another reason that we were reluctant to turn over complete control of Title III to the States was our concern that some State educational agencies have not yet shown that they are adequately attuned to the overwhelming needs of urban school districts. There is no need to elaborate on the historical domination of State legislatures by rural areas. Patterns of State aid to local schools clearly indicate that children in cities are far too often shortchanged.

Our final concern, and one which goes to the very heart of the purposes of Title III, was that administration of the program by the States might result in unnecessary waste and overlap of programs. Given the funds available for Title III and the limited number of projects it can support, Title III must aim at more than giving money to local school districts to solve everyday educational problems. The emphasis must be on demonstration programs of national and regional significance, the results of which can be disseminated beyond the local school districts which undertake the projects.

The nationwide focus made possible under the Federal-local pattern of administration was designed to avoid waste of scarce human and financial resources by providing for such broad dissemination. Unless there is close cooperation among the States, the new pattern of Title III administration, I fear, may lead to wasteful duplication of effort in different States.

I have thus far outlined very frankly some of my thinking as of last year when I sought to oppose the administrative changes in Title III. But let me make clear that, by this discussion, I do not mean to suggest that I feel these problems are insurmountable or that I see little hope for effective State administration of Title III. On the contrary, I have been encouraged by what has been done and is being done to strengthen State leadership. Indeed, I am strongly committed to the idea of State responsibility for leadership in education, with the Federal Government as a junior partner to give direction and enact needed legislation.

This is the reason that I have strongly supported ESEA Title V. When the administration's initial proposal for 10 million dollars for Title V was introduced in 1965, it was on my motion that the appropriation was raised to 25 million dollars, and I continue to look to Title V to give a vital thrust to the task of strengthening our State educational agencies.

I might note that the States will also receive help in meeting their new administrative responsibilities from a provision in the 1967 ESEA amendments. This provision allows you to use up to 7½ percent of the State Title III allotment for proper and efficient administration of State Plans, for the hiring of expert consultants, and for evaluation and dissemination activities. These provisions can greatly enhance the administrative competence of the States in operating the Title III program.

You at the State level, then, have the keys to the future success of Title III. Weighing the problems and the prospects, I am very hopeful.

Let me just briefly identify three factors which I believe will be critical as you begin the long and challenging task of administering this important program.

The first factor is fidelity to the purpose of the program. Each State must ask "What is the Congressional intent?" Here, I think you can look to the Office of Education, which has held closely to the legislative intent in its operation of Title III. Under the Office of Education, the emphasis of the program has been on demonstration of innovation, and rightly so. Title III is not to be used to meet all critical educational needs. Rather it should be used to demonstrate creative, exemplary solutions to some crucial educational problems. And this distinction must be maintained, or Title III will most surely fail.

Second is the need for each State to develop strong evaluation and dissemination components for its Title III program. Without a concentrated evaluation and dissemination effort, each Title III project could live and die in its own State, never benefiting from the successes and failures of other projects, never reaching other projects, and never resulting in anything, anywhere. Such an outcome would be tragic.

A third essential, I believe, is community involvement. People want to be involved in the educational process, involved in the decisions that are going to affect the way their children are educated. Such involvement is crucial to the success of Title III, and the State advisory councils are an important means for helping to make it possible.

Community involvement, dissemination and evaluation, meeting the Congressional intent--these are some of the pivotal factors in the success of Title III as a State Plan program as I see it; and I hope that you will consider these factors carefully as you make your choices for the program in the ensuing year. I think you have a most difficult task ahead, a task that will demand imagination, dedication, and hard work. You are charged with the program which carries the seeds of educational change; your operation of Title III will profoundly affect the future of American education. The challenge is formidable, but the stakes for schools and school children across the country have never been higher.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF TITLE III PROGRAM

The first two days of the PACE Conference on Innovation were characterized by the discussion and debate of issues presented by speakers, of problems concerning State plan administration and program direction which State educational agencies are attempting to solve, of the roles of the National and State Advisory Councils, of problems encountered in launching local projects, and of the effects of the amendments to ESEA Title III on the total program.

During the final four-hour session of the Conference, participants worked in 23 small groups of about 10 members each to examine those issues and problems confronting the Title III program and to make recommendations for the improvement of the total program. These small groups were composed of at least one of the following representatives from different States: a Chief State School Officer or his designate, a State Title III Coordinator, a State Title III Advisory Council Member, and a Title III local project director. In addition, National Advisory Council members and representatives from the U. S. Office of Education participated in these work sessions.

The comments prepared by each group were then analyzed by four panel members: The Reverend Michael O'Neill, Member, Washington State Title III Advisory Council; Mr. Leo H. Howell, Jr., Coordinator, Title III, ESEA, Florida State Department of Education; Mr. Don L. Gann, Director, Title III, ESEA, Missouri State Department of Education; and Mr. Paul Ford, Associate Professor, Washington State University.

Two concerns most frequently voiced, by over 50% of the work groups, involved funding policies, including appropriations, and restrictions imposed by the amendments to ESEA Title III. Other items which were listed frequently dealt with Title III as an innovative program, evaluation and dissemination techniques, the roles of the National and State Advisory Councils, and services of the U. S. Office of Education. The following are representative of suggestions which occurred most frequently.

Funding

* The timing of funding is the number one issue for Title III.

* Earlier and more extensive funding.

* Funding one year in advance should be made a part of the Title III law.

* There are serious disadvantages in funding which results in mid-and late-summer employment of project staff.

* Funding policies should allow money for two or more years at the same or expanded levels.

* Congress should vote appropriations sufficiently early for the funds to be meaningful and helpful.

* Consideration must be given to the appropriation by Congress in sufficient time to provide for effective and efficient program operation in the several States... We recommend funding a year in advance.

* Effective planning is not possible with the uncertainties and insecurities of appropriations.

* Once the appropriation is made, further manipulation by the Bureau of the Budget or other agencies should be discontinued.

* The vision of Congress of what might be will remain only a vision unless adequate funding is available.

* Earlier availability of funds is critical to success of annual programs.

* The inflexible application of the "3-year rule" works against the chances of installing highly innovative projects which often require a two-to three-year development and evaluation period.

* Develop advance funding in all Federal education programs.

* There is a need for two-year appropriations.

* School administrators should know in advance how much money will be forthcoming in Title III.

* Suggest a five-year funding policy.

Restrictions Imposed by Legislation

* The trend toward "categorizing" Title III funds, i.e., 15% for the handicapped, should be halted and Title III funds should be left free for innovation.

* Earmarking of funds for handicapped should be eliminated from Title III, in view of ESEA Titles VI and I which provide for the handicapped.

* Concern is developing over the earmarking of Title III funds.

* Eliminate earmarking portions of funds, i.e., 15 percent for the handicapped. Transfer funds for the handicapped under Title III to Title VI which is already categorized. Such categorization weakens Title III.

* No further attempt should be made to fragment the original intention of Title III. If national priorities are apparent, they should be met with separate legislation, i.e., required 15 percent for the handicapped, and emphasis upon central cities.

* Suggest amendment to remove 15 percent requirement for the handicapped.

Keeping Title III Innovative

* The State departments of education and State advisory councils must be active and watchful to insure that Title III remains "innovative" and exemplary.

* Eliminate the ridiculous restrictions on creativity.

* Safeguards should be continued to maintain the emphasis on innovations.

- Endorse guidelines which permit considerable flexibility in interpreting the terms "innovative" and "exemplary." Practices, procedures, and techniques which may be truly innovative or exemplary in one location may not measure up as such in another.

- Strongly in favor of support by Title III of local educational agencies for the introduction of creativity and experimentation in education.

- If Title III is to retain its original intent, it must be recognized that some innovative projects will fail.

Evaluation

- Need for national conference on evaluation sponsored by National Advisory Council.

- Need for stricter provisions for evaluation designs and reporting.

- Outside evaluators have not been too successful.

- Product evaluation has been found not to be as important as process evaluation.

- A national need exists in the field of evaluation instruments. We call for help from appropriate Research and Development Laboratories. The U.S. Office of Education should be more involved in evaluation or monitoring of the program.

- Evaluation is "everybody's" business, but it must also become "someone's" business. We need specific plans, and funds set aside especially for this purpose.

- Local evaluation should be designed to meet local needs, and not to comply with Federal requirements and reports to Congress.

Dissemination

- Strengthen dissemination by training State staff and project directors in the change process.

- Educators in Title III should share information on "failures" so we may build on them. Disseminate information on unsuccessful as well as successful projects.

- If ERIC is to be more effective in the dissemination of ideas regarding innovations in education, more emphasis must be given not only to collection of data, but also to motivation. It is conceivable that with increased funds and responsibility for the States, the SEA may assume the job of highlighting innovative practices and share such information with the national office.

State Advisory Councils

- The State advisory council must serve in an advisory role rather than becoming an independent or semi-independent body.

* As new structures, the State advisory councils in most States are not independent. If USOE wants independence, it should insist on an organizational pattern which would promote independence.

National Advisory Council

* The National Advisory Council should visit outstanding projects in the company of State advisory council members and should develop adequate documentation.

* The National Advisory Council should give broad publicity and support to Title III in fiscal year 1969; lack of funds for new proposals at the State level is minimizing interest and enthusiasm at the local level.

* A strong liaison should be maintained between National and State Advisory Councils to avoid provincialism in viewpoints and program direction.

U.S. Office of Education Services

* Continued consultant services and strong support by USOE staff is essential to maintain vitality of administration and program direction. Services OE should provide include:
    1. Assessment of national and State needs
    2. Evaluation services
    3. Review of State projects to assess quality
    4. Consolidation of effort to bring recommendations to Congress on legislation and funding levels.

* Compile a National Directory of Human Resources, listing specialists, etc.

* Adequate staff for the U.S. Office of Education should be provided to allow sufficient articulation and contact with the States.

Other

* There does not seem to be the necessary "trust" of the States' ability to handle the administration of Title III funds.

* Need for better "engineering" of projects; the translation of the "idea" to a viable, workable project.

* Setting priorities should rest with States, based on recommendations from the State advisory councils. States should decide what is innovative in each State.

* Regional meetings should be held for the purpose of determining how to assess and determine the most critical needs.

* Federal Guidelines and Regulations for administering Title III should reflect confidence in the States' ability to administer this program, while keeping regulations to safeguard the rights of all States.

* Lack of understanding of local level problems on the Federal level.

* Guarantees should be made for full-time Title III personnel.

PROGRAM

PRESIDENT'S NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL CONFERENCE ON INNOVATION
Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (PACE)

September 30 - October 2, 1968
Marriott Twin Bridges Motor Hotel
Washington, D. C.

James A. Hazlett, Chairman
President's National Advisory Council
on Supplementary Centers and Services

Herbert W. Wey, Conference Director
and Vice-Chairman of President's National
Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers
and Services

September 29 - Sunday

Terrace Room
7:00 - 9:00 pm REGISTRATION

September 30 - Monday

Persian Room
Third Floor
8:00 - 9:00 REGISTRATION

9:00 - 10:00 NATIONAL PERSPECTIVES
Presiding - James A. Hazlett

Opening Remarks
Wilbur J. Cohen
Secretary, U.S. Department of
Health, Education, and Welfare

Innovating for National Priorities in American Education
Harold Howe, II
U.S. Commissioner of Education

10:00 - 10:15 CONFERENCE OBJECTIVES
Herbert W. Wey

10:15 - 10:45 REFRESHMENTS

10:45 - 11:30 STATUS OF PACE
Presiding - Norman E. Hearn
Chief, Program Analysis and
Dissemination Branch, DPSC, USOE

Statistical Overview
David Iwamoto
Chief, Analysis Section, DPSC, USOE

National Evaluation Reports
Richard Miller
Director, Program on Educational Change
University of Kentucky
Lexington, Kentucky

11:30 - 12:00 Group Reaction

Chesapeake Bay Room
Third Floor
LUNCH
12:00 - 2:00 EDUCATIONAL CHANGE FROM THE LOCAL LEVEL
Presiding - Ralph Becker
Director, Division of Plans
and Supplementary Centers, USOE

Leon Lessinger
Associate Commissioner for
Elementary and Secondary Education, USOE

Persian Room
2:00 - 3:00 NEW RELATIONSHIPS (Panel Presentation)
Presiding - Ralph Becker - Overview

Role of National Advisory Council
William Smith, Member
President's National Advisory Council
on Supplementary Centers and Services

Robert Mulligan
Assistant to the Director, Division of
Plans and Supplementary Centers, USOE

Role of State Advisory Council
Terrel Bell
Utah Superintendent of Public Instruction
Salt Lake City, Utah

Arnold Gallegas
Chairman, Washington State Title III
Advisory Council, Office of the State
Superintendent of Public Instruction
Olympia, Washington

3:00 - 4:00 Small Group Sessions

4:00 - 5:00 Discussion with Panel

Persian Room
5:00 - 6:00 RECEPTION

Chesapeake Bay Room
DINNER
6:00 - 8:00 EDUCATIONAL CHANGE IN THE CITY
Presiding - Mario D. Fantini
Member, President's National Advisory Council
on Supplementary Centers and Services

Sidney Marland
President, Institute for Educational
Development, New York

October 1 - Tuesday

Persian Room 9:00 - 9:45	A STATE STRATEGY FOR EVALUATING EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS Presiding - B. Alden Lillywhite Deputy Associate Commissioner for Elementary and Secondary Education, USOE Ralph Tyler Chairman, Research Advisory Council of the U.S. Office of Education Senior Consultant, Science Research Associates Incorporated, Chicago, Illinois
9:45 - 10:15	Discussion
10:15 - 10:30	REFRESHMENTS
10:30 - 11:15	A STATE STRATEGY FOR DISSEMINATING EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS Presiding - Lee Burchinal Director, Division of Information Technology and Dissemination, USOE Louis Rubin Director, Center for Coordinated Education University of California Santa Barbara, California
11:15 - 12:00	Discussion
Commonwealth Room Second Floor LUNCH 12:00 - 1:30	EVALUATION AND DISSEMINATION STRATEGIES (Interstate Table Groupings)
Persian Room 1:30 - 1:45	STATUS SUMMARY - CENTRAL CITY PROJECTS Presiding - William J. Sanders Member, President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services Samuel Kavruck Chief, Demonstration Projects Branch, DPSC, USOE
1:45 - 2:30	STATE PLAN HIGHLIGHTS Presiding - William J. Sanders Assessment and Long-Range Planning O Ray Warner Chief State Plans Branch, DPSC, USOE

	Evaluation and Dissemination Richard R. Goulet Chief, Program Dissemination Section, DPSC, USOE
2:15 - 2:30	Discussion
2:30 - 4:00	SMALL GROUP PRESENTATIONS AND DISCUSSION
Chesapeake Bay Room No. 1	GROUP 1 - ASSESSMENT OF NEEDS Presiding - Walter Steidle Chief, Educational Development Section, DPSC, USOE Russell Working ESEA Title III State Coordinator State Department of Education Columbus, Ohio
Chesapeake Bay Room No. 2	GROUP 2 - LONG-RANGE PLANNING Presiding - Harry Phillips Director, Division of State Agency Cooperation, BESE, USOE Warren Hitt Deputy Commissioner of Education Texas Education Agency Austin, Texas
Chesapeake Bay Room No. 3	GROUP 3 - STATE STRUCTURE REORGANIZATION Presiding - Ruth Mancuso Member, President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services Karl Hereford Director, Program Planning and Evaluation Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, USOE
Chesapeake Bay Room No. 4	GROUP 4 - EVALUATION Presiding - Maynard Reynolds Member, President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services Patrick Toole Assistant Director for Curriculum Development State Department of Public Instruction Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

Chesapeake Bay Room
No. 5

GROUP 5 - DISSEMINATION
Presiding - Pierre DuMaine
Member, President's National Advisory
Council on Supplementary Centers
and Services

Norman Kurland
Director, Center on Innovation
State Education Department
Albany, New York

Commonwealth Room
No. 1

GROUP 6 - PRIVATE SCHOOL RELATIONS
Presiding - A. Louis Read
Member, President's National Advisory
Council on Supplementary Centers
and Services

Edward R. D'Alessio
U.S. Catholic Conference
Washington, D. C.

Commonwealth Room
No. 2

GROUP 7 - BUSINESS, FOUNDATION, AND GOVERNMENT RELATIONS
Presiding - Rosita Cota
Member, President's National Advisory
Council on Supplementary Centers
and Services

Homer Dowdy
Assistant Director, Mott Foundation
Flint, Michigan

Commonwealth Room
No. 3

GROUP 8 - PROVISION FOR THE HANDICAPPED
Presiding - Helen Bain
Member, President's National Advisory
Council on Supplementary Centers
and Services

James Gallagher
Associate Commissioner of Education for
the Handicapped, USOE

Commonwealth Room
No. 4

GROUP 9 - COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT
Presiding - J. C. Martin
Member, President's National Advisory
Council on Supplementary Centers
and Services

Charles Smith
Special Assistant to the Commissioner
for Urban Education, USOE

Commonwealth Rooms
No. 1 and 3
4:00 - 4:45

FILMS OF PACE PROJECTS
Presiding - Richard R. Goulet
Chief, Program Dissemination
Section, DPSC, USOE

SCORE For Tomorrow, produced by The Education Council for School Research and Development, Mineola, New York

Ode to Joy, produced by State of Arizona Supplementary and Innovative Enrichment Project, Mesa, Arizona
Introduced by Danny L. Dearen
Director, Center For Educational Advancement
Mesa, Arizona

Persian Room
5:00 - 6:00

RECEPTION

DINNER
6:00 - 8:00

CONGRESSIONAL EXPECTATIONS FOR ESEA TITLE III
Presiding - Ralph K. Huitt
Assistant Secretary for Legislation, DHEW

John Brademas
House Committee on Education and Labor
U.S. House of Representatives

October 2 - Wednesday

Persian Room
8:30 - 11:00

ANALYSIS OF TITLE III STRENGTHS
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF TOTAL PROGRAM

Small Group Work Sessions

(Continental Breakfast)

11:00 - 11:45

HIGHLIGHTS OF WORK SESSIONS
Presiding - James A. Hazlett

Michael O'Neill, Member, Washington State Title III Advisory Council; Leo H. Howell, Jr., Coordinator for ESEA Title III, Florida State Department of Education; Don L. Gann, Director, ESEA Title III, Missouri State Department of Education; Paul Ford, Associate Professor, Washington State University

11:45 - 12:00

GREETINGS FROM THE PRESIDENT

S. Douglass Cater, Jr.
Special Assistant to the
President of the United States

reprinted and distributed
for
the U. S. Office of Education
by
Bell Educational Services, inc.
1101 Seventeenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20036